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ABSTRACT

This publication, fourth in a series on elementary school guidance, focuses primarily on three target populations counselors are committed to serve: children, teachers, and parents. It contains a collection of controlled studies and the impact of counselor effort on a variety of important guidance outcome variables: selfconcept, peer status, attitude toward school, and interpersonal communication skills of teachers and parents. In virtually all of the research reported, the positive influence of counselor-led activities is a result of some designated competence applied in a systematic way to a specific need of children, teachers or parents. It appears that psychological education, like cognitive learning, is most successful when learning activities are relevant and presented in an orderly manner over time. (Author/LP)

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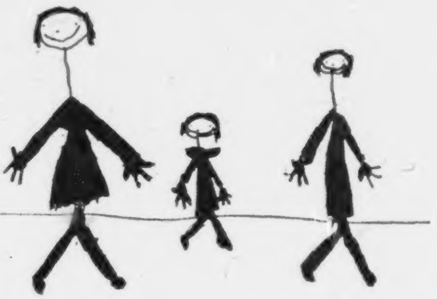
FOURTH IN A SERIES

Additional Studies in Elementary School Guidance:

Psychological Education Activities Evaluated



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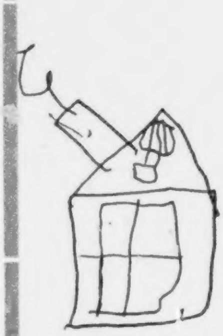

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Additional Studies in Elementary School Guidance:

Psychological Education Activities Evaluated

Edited
by
G. Dean Miller

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PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES SECTION
DIVISION OF INSTRUCTION
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1973

INTRODUCTION

This publication, fourth in a series concerned with elementary school guidance, focuses primarily on the three target populations counselors are committed to serve — children, teachers, and parents. The earlier Minnesota publications (Grams, 1966; Miller, 1966; and Gum, 1969a) were concerned with formulating a theoretical framework as a basis for guidance, how it might be made operational, and more recently, the differential effectiveness of various model emphases (Miller, Gum and Bender, 1972). This present publication contains a collection of more controlled studies and the impact of counselor effort on a variety of important guidance outcome variables — self-concept, peer status, attitude toward school, and interpersonal communication skills of teachers and parents.

It is important to note that in most all of the research reported herein the positive influence of counselor led activities is a result of some designated competence applied in a systematic way to a specific need of children, teachers, or parents. It appears that psychological education like cognitive learning is most successful when learning activities are relevant and presented in an orderly manner over a period of time.

G. D. M.

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SELF-CONCEPT CHANGE: THE EFFECT OF A SELF-CONCEPT ENHANCEMENT PROGRAM ON PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

E. Michelle Pardew and Elizabeth A. Schilson*

Introduction

For a number of years the term self-concept has been a focus of study in many areas of social science. Within the realm of human development, there has been a growing emphasis on the importance of the foundations of self concept, and the fostering of positive self-concept growth. There exists an urgency to recognize and to enhance positive growth of self-concept in the area of early child development.

Background of the Problem

Murphy (Butler, 1970, p. 107) emphasized that by age three a child has developed a well integrated view of himself, which is the core and precipitator of his future behavior. Yet, a quieting note was offered by Butler (1970) when she remarked:

> Life is not over at age three, but the general view toward the world and toward oneself is already present. Possibilities for change are always present, but the longer a behavior persists the more difficult it is to change (p. 107).

The emergence of divergent styles of behavior has been traced to a crucial period of growth, which begins between ten and eighteen months, according to researchers of the Harvard Pre-School Project. For six years they have studied "the development of adaptive abilities or competence in the first six years of life" (White, 1972), searching for causal environmental factors. Through their study they hoped to reveal how to structure a child's experiences during early years in order to maximize development of competence. The work of these researchers has contributed to a new realm of thought in preschool education, and has shown a crucial need for education to extend back to the most important formative period, the child's first year of life.

The impact of Murphy's (Butler, 1970) observations and the findings of the Harvard Pre-School Project should have particular relevance to the organized preschool programs which begin with three-year-old children. Although such evidence has illu-

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**Ms. Pardew conducted the study in cooperatin with Dr. Schilson, Associate Professor of Guidance and Counseling, University of North Dakota. The authors wish to acknowledge the contribution made by Dr. Richard G Landry for his help in the design of the study, and the analysis and interpretataion of data. This project was sponsored out of Title III funds under The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 through the Pupil Personnel Services Section, Minnesota Department of Education.*

minated the need for preschool education and child care to focus directly on behavior and self-concept development, the response in terms of programs has been slow and scattered. Most programs with an emphasis on positive self-concept development have been of the compensatory education type designed for deprived children. Yet, there has been no conclusive evidence to show that negative self-concepts are an exclusive characteristic of the lower social classes. On the contrary, research has shown that it is a malady which strikes all children. In stressing the responsibility of society to concentrate on the crucial years of childhood, Gordon (1969) made a dramatic and thought-provoking parallel: "For very young children, negative self-view may be as damaging as physical illness or actual physical handicap" (p. 378).

Purpose and Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a self-concept enhancement program carried out with four-year-olds who attended nursery school. The investigator sought to answer: Will the utilization of a self-concept enhancement program affect a significant change in the self-concepts of four-year-old preschool children as compared with four-year-old preschool children not receiving the program? Will there be any significant relationships between child characteristics and their self-concepts?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were set up:

H_1: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the control group that did not receive the self-concept enhancement program?

H_2: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the experimental group that did receive the self-concept enhancement program?

H_3: Will the experimental group have significantly more changes in self-concept scores from pretesting to posttesting than the control group?

H_4: Will there be any significant relationships between child characteristics and their self-concept scores?

Significance of Study

Although the study of change in the personal psychological-social area generally has been considered to be one of the most important considerations of early childhood education (Thomas, 1969, p. 4), there exists a paucity of research in this crucial area. The studies of self-concept change in preschool children have been few in number, and generally they have been confined to culturally deprived populations. This study has attempted to demonstrate the effects of a self-concept enhancement program on the self-concepts of four-year-old preschool children, and has further underscored the possible need for self-concept enhancement programs as a crucial and permanent aspect of preschool experience for all children.

Delimitations of the Problem

The research sample of preschool children was delimited to fifty-two four-year-old children enrolled at Kiddie Kampus Preschool, Grand Forks Air Force Base, North Dakota.

Limitations

This study was limited by the characteristics of the assessment tools: *The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* (TSCVT), the *Developmental Profile*, and the Questionnaire of Child Characteristics.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept

In general terms self-concept can be defined as a "multidimensional construct" of the self-system, including all of an individual's self-perceptions received from social interactions with significant others, and all of the individual's self-evaluations formed on the basis of his cultural value system. For the purpose of this research study, self-concept was defined by twenty-five self-concept scales: the nineteen self-concept scales on the TSCVT, and the six teacher ratings on the *Developmental Profile*. In Appendix A has been provided a list of these defining scales.

Self-Concept Enhancement Program

In general a self-concept enhancement program has been defined as one which provides a child with the opportunity to focus specifically on himself, exploring his physical, intellectual, and emotional being. Through enhancing self-awareness he is then able to focus on self-other (social) relationships, leading to an ultimate understanding of the total environment which surrounds him. The investigator of this research study established specific purposes and goals for the self-concept enhancement program, and selected specific developmental guidance activities which were designed to assist children in reaching these goals: (a) promoting an awareness and understanding of self by enhancing emotional development in a social group atmosphere; (b) developing effective communication and listening skills which would help children to become more aware of how others perceive them; and (c) aiding the children in understanding cause and effect relationships between the behavior of one person and the resultant feelings of another person.

Summary

In this introductory section, the investigator has provided a brief overview of the background of the research problem: the enhancement of positive self-concept growth in early childhood. The research purpose and problem statements, and four specific hypotheses were presented. The significance of the study was discussed, followed by a brief consideration of problem delimitations and limitations. Concluding this section were the definitions of the main research terms, self-concept and self-concept enhancement program. In the next section will be reviewed self-concept theory and research. Section three will include discussion of research design and methodology followed by the presentation and discussion of the results. The study will be summarized and conclusions and recommendations arising from the research results will be presented.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

For decades psychologists have addressed themselves to the basic challenge of predicting and understanding individual behavior; how an individual is unique from others and what makes him this way (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 192). This growing emphasis on self has led to the fact that within the last three decades "all theories of personality (have) assigned importance to self-referent constructs" (Wylie, 1968, p. 728), with the predominant "keys to personality" being expressed in terms of self-concept and life style (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 192). In this section a review of the literature is reported concerning: the evolution of self-concept: historical perspectives; the dilemma of definition; the characteristics and growth of self-concept; the correlates of self-concept in early childhood; self-concept and social class; enhancement of self-concept in early childhood; and assessment of self-concept.

Evolution of Self-Concept: Historical Perspectives

The construct of self-concept is one of the *many* postulated constructs within the self-theory. The roots of self-theory can be traced to the Middle Ages when Descartes (1644) initiated the age of reason with his statement, "*cogito ergo sum*" (I think therefore I am). His view of the self gave reason or cognition the reign over emotions. "The self was active, aware, free; the senses and emotions were passive, or confused influences upon the mind" (Gordon, 1969, p. 375). This view of self remained paramount until the end of the nineteenth century.

Freud, in his "quest" for understanding internal processes, succeeded in breaking the Descartian tradition. By emphasizing emotions and early childhood experiences, he contributed a second dimension to the evolving theory of self:

> We now seek to define ourselves in ways which include our feelings as well as our thoughts, and look for the origins of our personality in the first dim moments of life long before cognition seemed possible (Gordon, 1969, p. 375).

Indirectly, Freud considered the self-concept construct in his personality theory through consideration of "ego development and functioning" (Purkey, 1970, p. 3). Freud felt that it is the ego which "modifies the psychic energy of the id" through interaction with objective reality in the higher mental processes (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 192).

From this historical backdrop developed by Freud, there emerged varying constructs which explored both the affective and cognitive properties of self-concept. Yet, further development of these constructs was delayed for several decades. During the 1920's through the 1940's behaviorists and functionalists dominated American psychology, leaving self-constructs to be generally ignored by psychologists and educators (Purkey, 1970, p. 4).

A re-emphasis of self-constructs, and specifically self-concept, finally began to emanate during the 1940's. Raimy first introduced and defined the term self-concept in 1943 when he measured the effects of counseling on self-concept change:

> The self-concept is the more or less organized perceptual object resulting from present and past self-observations . . . (it is) what a person believes about himself. The self-concept is the map which each person consults in order to understand himself, especially during moments of crisis or choice (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 192).

In contrast, the Adlerian theorists have used the construct *life style* to refer to self-concept. "Adlerians believe that all of the child's actions are a result of this general life style, which is based upon an evaluation of self and society" (Dinkmeyer, 1965, p. 193). By using creative powers to evaluate his experiences, the child's perceptions become the actual determinants of his behavior.

The phenomenological psychologists have been directly responsible for the major re-emergence of self-concept into the fields of psychology and education, following the reign of behaviorism. Combs and Snygg have made significant contributions to self-concept theory with their concept of perceptual or phenomenal field. According to their theory, an individual's basic drive of self-enhancement and maintenance is the determinant of his behavior. His personal frame of reference, or phenomenal field, is made up of his subjective perceptions of life, and it is these unique experiences which guide his actions.

Greatly influenced by the phenomenological movement in psychology, Carl Rogers presented his non-directive system of psychotherapy in which "the self is *the* central aspect of personality" (Purkey, 1970, p. 6). Many self-concept theorists have followed his definition of self-concept closely:

> The self-concept or self-structure may be thought of as an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities; the percepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment; the value qualities which are perceived as associated with experiences and objects; and goals and ideals which are perceived as having positive or negative valence (Rogers, 1951, p. 136).

The above are a mere sample of the theorists who have contributed to the self-concept movement in psychology and education. Today there is found a great interest in the "dynamic importance of the self" (Purkey, 1970, p. 6), and in how self-concept shapes behavior. Much effort has been devoted to identifying the characteristics of self-concept, and to tracing self-concept development. An understanding of these dimensions is basic to the exploration of self-concept theory.

The Dilemma of Definition:

The Characteristics and Growth of Self-Concept

In response to Wylie's recommendations (1968), writers have recently begun to organize the theories of self-concept into more limited theoretical constructs. Coller, Purkey, and Dinkmeyer provide varying examples of such efforts.

Coller (1971) believed that:

> Self-concept should really be regarded as a generic term for a set of concepts of self that involve aspects of *self-evaluation* and/or *self-description;* appropriately, the connotative and denotative attributes of meaning (p. 15).

Furthermore, these two aspects are comprised of subcomponents. Included within the self-evaluation aspect of self-concept are such processes as self-appraisal and self-regard, in which one's personal judgment of self-worth and "degree of self-satisfaction in self-evaluation" are expressed; whereas, the subcomponents of self-description include self-image and self-awareness. The former stresses "the self one *thinks* oneself to be" (English and English, 1958, p. 487), and the latter stresses the "knowledge of one's own traits or qualities; insight into, and understanding of, one's own behavior and motives" (English and English, 1958, p. 486). Even more operationally, self-awareness has been considered by Wylie (1961) to "involve a discrepancy between a person's self-report and the report of an observer concerning that person" (Coller, 1971, p. 16).

In addition to the evaluative and descriptive dimension of generic self-concept, Coller included the dimension of phenomenal (conscious) and nonphenomenal (unconscious) aspects. According to Coller, it is inaccurate to speak of self-concept as a "unitary concept", but rather it is more appropriate to consider self-concept in respect to its various dimensions and their underlying aspects.

Coller's concluding definition (Creelman, 1954) aptly summarized the aspects which he has emphasized. "Self-concept, as broadly conceived, is a multidimensional construct that covers and includes the total range of one's perceptions and evaluations of himself" (p. 18). When reference is made to one's self-concept it must be considered from all dimensions and aspects, thus transforming the term self-concept into the more appropriate "global self-concept".

In his discussion of self-concept, Coller attempted to organize the varying definitions of self-concept into a more workable system. From this point more division was possible, and more systematic research was conceivable. He had gone well beyond the two dimensional self-as-subject/self-as-object definition of self which was much criticized by Wylie in her extensive review of self-concept literature. Wylie believed that the dichotomy of self into self-as-subject and self-as-object "proves to be an inaccurate basis for classifying the self-constructs used by personality theorists" (Wylie, 1968, p. 730). It was to this criticism that Coller directed his reorganization of self-concept definition.

In his book, *Self Concept and School Achievement,* Purkey (1970) discussed the characteristics and development of self-concept in an attempt to organize the wealth of existing definitions. His composite definition cited the self "as a complex and dynamic system of beliefs which an individual holds true about himself, each belief with a corresponding value" (p. 7). From his review of self-concept, Purkey concluded certain important characteristics:

> (1) that the self is organized and dynamic; (2) that to the experiencing individual the self is the center of his personal universe; (3) that everything is observed, interpreted, and comprehended from this personal vantage point; and (4) that human motivation is a product of the universal striving to maintain, protect and enhance the self (p. 13).

Purkey referred to self-concept development "as a process of experience (which is) remarkably plastic, changeable, and possesses infinite capacity for growth and actualization" (p. 30). He stated that significant others are the main forces shaping the self and their impact should not be underrated. The expectations of these significant others, who are usually the parents during preschool years, are actually internalized into self-perceptions. Purkey thus concluded:

> As a general rule, we can say that any behavior of significant people that causes a young child to think ill of himself, to feel inadequate, incapable, unworthy, unwanted, unloved, or unable, is crippling to the self (p. 33).

In his book, Purkey has focused on the two most vital agencies shaping self-concept, the home and the school, and he has given a clear picture of their pervasive impact by reviewing current research findings. Through his efforts, Purkey has contributed a great deal to the clarification of the growth of self-concept theory.

Another prominant contributor to self-concept theory has been Dinkmeyer. In his book, *Child Development: The Emerging Self* (1969), he has given an excellent overview of the development of self-concept, and he has traced its roots to early infancy. As a growth process, self-concept "tends to shape new experiences to conform to (already) established patterns. Behavior then becomes an attempt to maintain the consistency of the self-concept . . ." (p. 192); whether it is based on accurate or faulty assumptions. The beginnings of one's self-discovery, a process which continues throughout all developmental stages and phases, have been expressed aptly by Jersild (Dinkmeyer, 1969):

> The development of self awareness does not occur in an all-or-none fashion which would enable us to assume that up to this point the child does not possess it, but beyond this point he does. It is more likely that a child perceives different aspects of what he eventually calls himself, with varying degrees of clarity at different times (p. 196).

In his survey of self-concept Dinkmeyer concluded that the child must be encouraged to discover himself, and that the school must also participate in this discovery of self-understanding:

> Facilitating the child's ability to draw upon his feelings, to face his feelings, to experience and live comfortably with them, should be a part of the educational experience. . . . Early education in self-understanding might make it possible for the individual to live more comfortably without the continuous utilization of defense mechanisms (p. 202).

From these three perspectives of Coller, Purkey, and Dinkmeyer, the powerful influence that self-concept has upon behavior should be recognized. Yet, despite the overall stress of the importance of self-concept in early childhood, research has been limited. A number of studies have focused on the specific correlates of self-concept, while others have devoted their attention to the relationship between self-concept and social class.

The Correlates of Self-Concept in Early Childhood

Coopersmith's (1967) classic study of the *Antecedents of Self-Esteem* emphasized the importance of early child development by showing a significant relationship of self-esteem to early childhood experience, parental characteristics, and parental attitude and treatment. In this study it was reported that children's high self-esteem is positively related to mothers' high self-esteem, to more consistent discipline, and to positive and congenient experiences during childhood years.

Another report of the impact of early childhood experiences was Westman (1967) in his longitudinal study of 130 middle-class children from nursery school through high school. He discovered that "children who had adjustment problems in nursery school tended to have adjustment problems in later school life, and the problems tended to be of the same order" (Butler, 1970, p. 109). Contrary to what is often expected, children did not outgrow their behavior problems, but instead strengthened them.

In relating self-concept to academic achievement, Combs and Soper (1963) concluded that kindergarten children's self-concepts were predictive of their academic achievement in both first and second grades. In addition, they found that as children enter first grade their feelings of adequacy and of being liked by their teacher decreases. Swayze (1966) also studied the relationship of self-concept to achievement in kindergarten children. He discovered that children who rated high in self-concept and in social and intellectual development were inclined to rank high in reading achievement as well. These results were consistent over two years.

Dwyer (1969) conducted an exploratory study of kindergarten children in order to investigate the influence of a program of primary prevention upon self-concept and the effects of self-concept on academic readiness. She focused particularly on different types of teachers, permissive or authoritarian, and their effect on their students' self-concepts—did they enhance positive self-concepts? In comparing four groups, two with permissive teachers and two with authoritarian teachers, Dwyer found: (a) no significant differences in the changes of self-concept; and (b) no significant relationships between final self-concept and academic readiness for any group. Despite the lack of significant findings Dwyer concluded several trends illuminating teacher differences. She found that permissive teachers had a greater influence upon self-concepts in children of low intelligence, and that they were effective in increasing self-concepts of children low in parent acceptance and of children of middle socio-economic class.

In his study Williams (1969) attempted to determine the extent to which, if any, preschool Negro boys and girls from divergent socio-economic backgrounds and communities, and from intact and father-absent homes, differed in self-concept and in verbal mental ability. As he hypothesized, Williams discovered differences in self-concept and verbal mental ability attributable to urban-suburban geography and to sex. His study also helped to validate the U-scale, a non-verbal measure of self-concept.

Minuchin (1968) conducted a study of two Philadelphia Head Start Preschool Centers for four-year-olds in order to assess the children's curiosity and exploration, self-image, perception of adults and the environment, and concept formation.

Although her disadvantaged subjects as a group were not as advantaged in these areas as middle-class children, they did show two distinct groups of high and low developers. The subjects with more active exploratory behavior were more coherent and had more positive images, and more adequate concept formations. For the less developed children the opposite was found. Thus, it was concluded that curiosity, exploration and concept formation are significant correlates of self-concept.

In his study of the development of self-other relationships during the Delaware Summer 1965 Head Start Program, Lamb (1965) found some significant results in terms of self-concept correlates. Not only were there significant changes in self-concept for this preschool group compared to a non-Head Start control group, but positive changes were found also in self-other relationships. Head Start children gained in perception of self as being similar to others, and tended to maintain self as central; whereas control subjects showed lower self-concepts and a lack of growth in self-other relationships when measured on *Self-Social Symbols Tasks.*

Self-Concept and Social Class

A further finding of Coopersmith (1967) which related self-concept to social class was summarized by Butler in her book, *Current Research in Early Childhood Education* (1970):

> There is no clear-cut definite pattern of relationships between social class and positive and negative attitude toward the self. Although persons from the upper and middle classes are more likely to express favorable attitudes than persons in the lower class, the differences are neither as large nor as regular as might be expected. Among persons in the lower class who are most likely to report lower self-esteem, there are almost as many persons who report high self-esteem as low self-esteem (p. 111).

With these results in mind, writers have urged that programs be provided for *all* children, not solely for the disadvantaged. They have argued that the economically disadvantaged have not had exclusive rights on low self-concepts, although they have suffered. The current trend has become one of stressing a general social consciousness of positive self-concept growth regardless of class distinction.

In his discussions of compensatory education programs for disadvantaged children, Hillery (1969) concluded that advantaged children are currently excluded from needed programs.

He has stated that economic criteria provides an inaccurate basis for allocation of funds to equalize education opportunity, and thus that funding should be allocated according to the needs of diverse groups.

Purkey (1970), in his survey of research on self-concept and social class, made the following conclusions:

> Judging by the available evidence, it seems hazardous to assume that ghetto children because of their socioeconomic circumstances, have lower self-concepts than children in better environments. The causes of negative self-concepts . . . are more psychological than economic (p. 19).

Deutsch and Deutsch (1967) in their evaluation of early childhood enrichment programs added another perspective by urging for an application to *all* children:

> However the emphasis placed on the particular problems of children from disadvantaged circumstances is accompanied by the recognition that the formulations about cognitive processes and educational procedures have application to children from all backgrounds (p. 308).

Gordon (1969) has drawn some profound conclusions from the relationship of early child development on self-concept growth:

> If these early years are crucial in determining school performance through the mechanism of self-concept, then society cannot shrug its responsibility. For very young children, negative self-views may be as damaging as physical illness or actual physical handicap. We are rapidly making provisions for medical help. We need to create nurturing environments early in life so that children's concepts of themselves may possibly emerge as positive (p. 378).

His prescription for this nurturing environment was an educational system which could help parents provide their children with the proper affective and cognitive climates. That is, an affective climate which would convey to children that they are loved; and also a cognitive climate which would allow them to experience competence. Gordon further stressed that a combination of the affective and cognitive is essential for self-concept growth. He has stated that the problem of self-concept enhancement is directed toward society at large and should not be restricted to isolated segments. "Now we need to develop the types of programs which provide for all children the psychological inputs which lead to positive self-esteem" (Gordon, 1969, p. 378).

Enhancement of Self-Concept in Early Childhood

Thus we see how current professional opinions support the need for direct attention to the development of self-concept in early childhood education programs, and further emphasize this need for *all* preschool programs. Yet, as we survey the early childhood programs with a focus on self-concept enhancement, we find a trend of compensatory education programs geared mainly to the culturally and economically disadvantaged.

Project Early Push (Manch, 1969) in Buffalo, New York established one model for preschool programs in compensatory education. Its major goal, consistent with many similar compensatory programs, was to "bridge the gap between the culturally different environment of the children and the requirements of school experience in primary grades" (p. 2). Although not citing specific self-concept enhancement activities, the program listed as three of its twelve specific objectives: (a) nurturing a healthy self-concept; (b) encouraging self-expression; and (c) encouraging interaction with others. In evaluating the results of this program, its investigators made no comparisons to a control group, and they stated their results in terms of achievement test scores only. Although Project Early Push aimed at affecting self-concept growth, this project provided no analysis of success for their crucial objective. This is a finding which has been rather consistent for most compensatory education programs. Many have listed self-concept enhancement among the areas of program emphasis but have given results only in terms of intellectual growth or achievement change.

The *Learning to Learn Program* (Sprigle, 1969), Jacksonville, Florida is another compensatory education program which has cited self-concept growth as a focus but has given results only in terms of achievement and intellectual test scores. The investigators found self-concept enhancement to be a by-product of their personalized and supportive program for acquiring "flexible strategies for dealing with challenges and problems" (p. 1). Although this may, in fact, have been true, the investigators made no attempt to measure self-concept change. Yet, in terms of other methodological considerations, the Learning to Learn Program did have a strong research design with its utilization of two control groups; a group of children from a traditional kindergarten program and a group of children receiving no formal preschool training. Still their experimental/control groups comparisons were made only on achievement measures, excluding self-concept assessment. This was an obvious deficiency in an otherwise complete preschool program of affective and cognitive growth.

Another compensatory education model was the *Early Childhood Project*, New York City (Deutsch, 1969), which was designed for kindergarten through third grade. This program focused on language development, self-concept, and perception and concept formation. As in the other two programs discussed, the results of this program study were reported in terms of intellectual growth with no mention of measured self-concept change.

Nimnicht, et al. (1967) also failed to supply assessment of self-concept change in their presentation of research on the *New Nursery School*, other than stating, "the school seems to improve their (the children's) self-image".

Another deficiency of the compensatory education program descriptions was the exclusion of specific self-concept enhancement activities. In contrast, the *Deutsch Model* (1968) has given specific examples of activities known to enhance self-concept and to affect an atmosphere of self-concept growth.

Project Beacon (Franco, 1964), Rochester, New York provided an ego development guide for their primary grade teachers as an essential aspect of their program. In this guide teachers were given a succinct presentation of self-concept theory with applications to their particular levels of teaching. For each level they were also provided with a discussion of the program's values and purposes, aims and objectives, materials, and a description of particular activities to communicate these goals to the students. Although Project Beacon was designed for a disadvantaged population (Negro), its activities have application to all children.

One of the most complete studies of a compensatory education program was conducted by the New Orleans Public Schools (1968). Entitled, *How He Sees Himself*, this investigation conducted by Crovetto, Fisher, and Boudreaux set out to test the effectiveness of the Model Kindergarten Experimental Program for deprived children. Similar to other compensatory programs its focus was on language development, visual-motor perception, and development of positive self-image. Using a pretest/posttest design, the investigators compared a group of program participants to a group of non-participants. Their program study surpassed the others previously mentioned through its assessment of change. Included in the testing program was a test for intellectual development (Stanford Binet Intelligence Scale); a test for visual-motor perception (Geometric Designs); and an assessment of self-concept, in terms of self-awareness and body image (Draw A Man Test). In their results the investigators found significant gains on all three assessments for the experimental group, thus allowing them to make sound conclusions for their program on all three objectives.

In addition, their study also included program guides for each area of enhancement. The guide for the improvement of self-concept included activities and guiding attitudes which could be incorporated into any self-concept enhancement program for any population group. The outlined attitudes were a great influence on the self-concept enhancement program used in this present study (detailed description appears in Appendix B).

Thus, the testing program and the description of specific program activities were two reasons which made the *How He Sees Himself* study one of the most complete compensatory education program models. Furthermore, it presented a model for early childhood education which could be applied to any population, and which created the essential affective and cognitive climates stressed by Gordon (1969).

Assessment of Self-Concept

Through these various studies we have gained some perspective of the scope of research in self-concept growth in early childhood education. Obvious criticisms are the paucity of available research, and the almost exclusive restriction of preschool subjects to disadvantaged populations. Schwertfeger and Weikart (1967, Thomas, 1969) discussed the lack of research in the general area of personal psychological-social change for early childhood education, and they cited several contributing factors. Predominant was the fact that very few measurements exist for change in social behavior of preschool children. In addition, researchers have not isolated testable hypotheses to study this crucial area of child development. This is particularly true in the field of self-concept development.

Until very recently, the existing self-concept assessments for preschool children were scattered throughout the literature surveys, making them difficult to locate and, therefore, to use. It was to this organizational task that Coller (1971) has recently directed his efforts. With his categorical system he has organized the available assessments of self-concept for preschool through third grade, and has published them in two recent works: *The Assessment of Self-Concept in Early Childhood Education;* and along with Guthrie, *An Annotated Bibliography: Self-Concept Measures.*

Despite obvious differences in design, Coller stressed that all self-concept measures can only infer self-concept by "direct observation of behavior as it emerges or by an examination of the traces of behavior after it has occurred" (Coller, 1971, p. 20). These two processes are fundamental to all self-concept assessment techniques discussed by Coller.

Coller's classification model (adopted from Gordon, 1968) had indicated five general procedures for assessing self-concept: direct observation, behavioral traces, self reports, projective techniques, and combinations of these. By adapting other classification systems, Coller has further divided each of these five areas to account for finer differences among available assessments. In Table 1 has been summarized his classification schema along with the self-concept assessments designed for preschool children. It should be kept in mind that these assessments will measure different aspects (or dimensions) of self-concept; therefore, the scores from the various techniques will naturally reflect these varying dimensions. This is an important consideration for comparing test results.

Table 1

Self-Concept Assessment Techniques

Classification (Coller, 1971)	Preschool Measures
A. Direct Observational Procedures	
1—Observation in unstructured environment	
2—Observation in selected situation	Inferred S.C. Judgment Scale S.C. Subscale of Evaluation Scale Developmental Profile
3—Observation in contrived situation	
B. Behavioral Trace Procedures	
1—Physical tracing	
2—Manifest and/or cloaked retrospective report	
C. Self Report Procedures	
1—Manifest and/or cloaked self report	
a) Orally defined bipolar alternate choice scale	Brown IDS-S.C. Referent Test Thomas S.C. Values Test
b) Graphic multiple choice scales	S.C. and Motivation Inventory
2—Reports on symbolically contrived situations	Preschool S.C. Picture Test Learner S.C. Test Children's Projective Pictures of S.C.
3—Episodal recall	
D. Projective Techniques	
1—Cued association	
2—Cued constructions	
3—Minimally induced constructions	Riley Preschool Developmental Screening Inventory
4—Completions	
5—View of stimulus through choice and/or ordering	Animal Picture Q-Sort Children's Self-Social Constructs Test
E. Combinational Procedures	
1—Observer as instrument	
2—Subjective-behavioral comparisons	

Coller suggested that researchers should consider self-concept as a "technical term that may be employed to designate a given field of study" (1971, p. 67). This seems to be what Thomas has achieved with his instrument, the *Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* (TSCVT). He "defines operationally the constructs measured by the subconstructs of self-concept" (Coller, 1971, p. 67); that is, he designated and defined fourteen value dimensions comprising self-concept. Thus, "self-concept values" became Thomas' technical term for a particular field of self-concept study. In addition to satisfying Coller's suggestion for more refined measurement of self-concept, Thomas also answered a major suggestion of Wylie's which she made in her article, "The Present Status of Self Theory" (1968). Wylie believed that it is "more scientifically productive in the long run to begin one's work with limited but testable hypotheses" (p. 784); and she also suggested the use of well analyzed measuring instruments.

In this study the TSCVT was selected as the main assessment of self-concept change. More than in the other available preschool measures, in the TSCVT there appeared to have been developed limited and testable hypotheses according to a specific theory of self-concept development. In his test manual Thomas discussed his theory of self-concept; the foundation of his self-concept values test. He based his theory largely on the work of Mead (1956). In particular, he adopted Mead's view of the process by which an awareness of one's own attributes become translated into self-concepts through social interaction. The self develops through one's relation to society and to the individual members within the social system. "The individual becomes an 'object' to himself by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself" (Thomas, 1969, p. 11). Consequently, "the self one knows is the self he sees in the 'looking glass' of others' perceptions of him" (Thomas, 1969, p. 11). An individual often distorts and selects these perceptions because of individual needs, motivations, and past experiences. Thus, self-awareness has been found to result from one's perception of the attitudes of specific others towards him, and also from the prevailing attitudes and values held by his social group.

Thomas supported the two dimensional system of self-concept in his discussion of the self-as-subject and self-as-object components of self-concept. He believed that the self-as-subject concept consists of feelings of intrinsic worth held by an individual about himself. Whereas, the self-as-object concept consists of the perceptions which one has of the ways in which he is seen by significant others in his life. Furthermore, Thomas contended that an individual is naturally influenced in self-as-subject perceptions by the information received from these significant others (referents).

In Thomas' opinion an individual, in order to report or indicate self-perceptions, must evaluate himself in terms of his values. Thomas defined personal value as "a normative, conceptual standard of the desirable which predispositionally influences individuals in choosing among personally perceived alternatives of behavior" (p. 13). In his term self-concept values, values become the object of consideration; whereas self-concept is considered an adjective referring to the process of self reporting, rather than to the object of the self report. Thomas tested a child's self-concept values by having him report (self-concept) on certain self-value dimensions in terms of significant others' perceptions of him (his self-as-object concept) and his own self-perception (his self-as-subject concept). Thus, Thomas based his assessment of self-concept upon a theory of testable hypotheses. Through his thorough analysis of his instrument it can be seen how he has focused on the subconstructs of self-concept (his specific value dimensions). It was for these strengths that the TSCVT was chosen as the self report assessment in this study.

In discussing which types of assessments were appropriate to use, Coller supported Fiske's (1963) suggestion:

> He *(the investigator)* should avoid the economical but dangerous practice of restricting himself to a single instrument, but rather should employ a minimum of two procedures as dissimilar in method as possible (p. 464).

The investigator realized the advantages of combined procedures in assessing self-concept, and therefore used two distinct assessment tools to measure self-concept change. For a self report assessment the TSCVT was selected; for direct observation in a selected situation the *Developmental Profile* (teacher rating) from the Human Development Program was used. A third significant source of data was tapped by utilizing a child characteristic questionnaire (parents' responses). The next section discusses in detail the rationale for each assessment and the dimensions of self-concept to which they are directed.

Summary and Conclusions

In this section the investigator attempted to organize the vast and often confusing field of self-concept theory. After a brief discussion of the historical roots of self-concept in self-theory, some major proponents of self-concept theory were discussed. Coller, Purkey and Dinkmeyer were cited specifically for their contributions in limiting and redefining self-concept constructs. As the survey of self-concept studies has indicated, self-concept research has a long struggle ahead in catching up to the advances of self-concept theory. As has been indicated there are three particular aspects of research which need attention. Specifically, these improvements are: (a) self-concept enhancement programs need to be designated for *all* preschool children; (b) these program descriptions need to include specific self-concept enhancement activities (both methods and materials); and (c) these programs need to measure self-concept change rather than subjectively suspecting change. Coller's work in gathering and classifying self-concept assessments was surveyed, and the self-concept instruments for the present study were discussed.

From the literature survey it was concluded that there is much support for self-concept enhancement at the preschool level for *all* children. Both Gordon and Dinkmeyer strongly urged that early in life a nurturing environment be established for children, combining cognitive and affective support. The investigator proposed the addition of the affective domain into preschool programs, which have long emphasized cognitive learning. A cognitive and affective program (so often stressed in compensatory education) needs to be applied to *all* preschool programs if we expect to reach *all* children. The following sections will focus on how a self-concept enhancement program can be organized and presented at the preschool level, and what profound effects self-concept enhancement has on self-concept change.

METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

This section provides a discussion of research methodology and design. The investigator begins with a discussion of the self-concept enhancement program's procedural methods and then briefly explores the sources of data. Next, the main research instruments of self-concept are discussed: *The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* and then the *Developmental Profile*. After briefly mentioning the statistical procedures used to test the research hypotheses, the investigator concludes this part with a discussion of the research population sample.

Procedural Methods

It was the goal of this study to demonstrate that developmental guidance activities which focus on self-concept enhancement can be presented in an organized program to middle-class preschool children.

The self-concept enhancement program used for the experimental treatment was adapted by the investigator from several published developmental guidance programs. The program was organized into thirty-three sessions covering an eleven week treatment period. Beginning with introductory activities, the program then proceeded to activities focusing specifically on enhancement of the physical self, the intellectual self, the emotional self, and the social self. The primary sources of activities were the *Focus on Self Development, Stage One: Awareness* program, (Anderson, Lang, and Scott, 1970), *Developing an Understanding of Self and Others—DUSO* (Dinkmeyer, 1970), and Scholastic/Kindle Sound Filmstrips for Early Childhood Education: *Who Am I?* — *The Concept of Self*, and *How Do I Learn?* — The *Concept of Learning* (Corini and Callas, 1971). The investigator made adaptations of these activities in order to suit the age level of the children. A more complete description of the program's activities has been placed in Appendix B.

Source of Data

Two instruments were used to assess self-concept. *The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* (TSCVT) was administered individually by an experienced examiner to the population sample of four-year-old children. The *Developmental Profile* was completed by the teachers of the children in the population sample. These two instruments comprised the twenty-five self-concept scales used as data for testing hypotheses one, two and three (Appendix A).

A questionnaire of child characteristics was developed by the investigator and completed by each child's parents. This questionnaire and the TSCVT were the sources of data used for testing hypothesis four. A copy of the child characteristic questionnaire has been placed in Appendix C.

Instruments

The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test (1969) was designed for individual testing of ages three to nine years and has been classified by Coller (1971) as a manifest self report. The child is first photographed to insure greater objectivity of response. He is then asked to refer to his picture while responding to "orally defined bi-polar alternate-choice scales" (i.e., Is Charlie Brown happy or is he sad?). Four different referents are used in response to each of the fourteen value scale items. These referents are: (a) the child as he sees himself (self-as-subject concept); (b) the child as he sees his mother seeing him (self-as-mother concept); (c) the child as he sees his teacher seeing him (self-as-teacher concept); (d) the child as he sees the other children in his class seeing him (self-as-peer concept). The fourteen self-value scales are described by Thomas as value dimensions of social experience (1969, p. 13). These value dimensions were formulated through "speculative decision" (based on literature reviews), rather than through factor analysis. Thomas has stated that these self-value scales are related to the cultural demands of middle-class children, and to the developmental tasks and problems which four to six-year-olds seem to experience (p. 14). He weighed the fourteen value factor scales according to cultural expectations as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Value Factor Scales

Factor	Item	Girl Keying	Boy Keying
Happiness	Happy/Sad	+1, −1	+1, −1
Size	Big/Little	−1, +1	+1, −1
Sociability	Like to play with other kids/ Not like to play with other kids	+1, −1	+1, −1
Ability	Smart/Not very smart	+1, −1	+1, −1
Sharing	Like other kids to play with his or her things/Not like other kids to play with his or her things	+1, −1	+1, −1
Male Acceptance	Like to be with men/ Not like to be with men	+1, −1	+1, −1
Fear of Things	Scared of a lot of things/ Not scared of a lot of things	−1, +1	−1, +1
Fear of People	Scared of a lot of people/ Not scared of a lot of people	−1, +1	−1, +1
Strength	Strong/Weak	−1, +1	+1, −1
Cleanliness	Clean/Dirty	+1, −1	+1, −1
Health	Well (Healthy)/Sick	+1, −1	+1, −1
Attractiveness	Goodlooking (pretty)/ Not goodlooking (not pretty)	+1, −1	+1, −1
Material	Want a lot of things/ Not want a lot of things	−1, +1	−1, +1
Independence	Like to do what others say/ Not like to do what others say	+1, −1	+1, −1

An answer/profile sheet was used to score the children as follows: (a) self-concept value scores range from –4 to +4; (b) self-concept referent scores range from –14 to +14; and (c) total self-concept scores range from –56 to +56.

In determining the reliability of his instrument, Thomas has reported data for the value scales' internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and sub-scale internal consistency. Thomas conducted an item analysis ($N = 75$) to determine the internal consistency of the value scales. He concluded that out of the 126 different item scales, 109 of the items showed item-scale relationships above .50.

For the nineteen pairs (N) of test-retest score distributions, the coefficients ranged from .34 (on health value scale) to .93 (on sharing value scale). The correlation coefficient for the total self-concept score was .78, and the average test-retest reliability was .75. Thomas found all derived coefficients to be significant at the .05 level.

Thomas also conducted an analysis of sub-scale (referent self-concepts) relationships, and he found them substantially related to conclude evidence of internal consistency. The mean value of the distribution of *r*'s was .73, which he considered a useful estimate of total test reliability.

In respect to construct validity Thomas has stated:

> When the subject taking the test has registered a given number of choice behaviors (value judgments about himself), one can logically infer the respective self-value areas by comparing him to his ranked peers (with norms and standard scores) (Thomas, 1969, p. 34).

Thus, he used certain theoretical constructs as evidence of construct validity.

In assessing concurrent validity Thomas compared a highly privileged group of children with an underprivileged group of children and found significant differences on fourteen of the nineteen criterion groups (self-concept scales). The highly privileged group held more positive perceptions of themselves than the underprivileged group. Thomas, therefore, concluded that his instrument is a valid discriminator between two criterion groups on fourteen self-value scales.

The investigator could find no research studies which used the TSCVT. Yet, Thomas did report on his own use of test data. From a child sample, he compared the self-value scores, the four referent scores and the total self-concept scores to various child characteristics. His findings of significant relationships are reported in Table 3.

The *Developmental Profile* (1970, an adaptation of the *Fels Rating Scales*) was designed by Bessell and Palomares to assess their *Human Development Program* ("Magic Circle") for preschool through primary school ages. Although the present study did not include the *Human Development Program* in its self-concept enhancement program, the investigator found enough similarity of purpose and goals between the two programs to justify use of the *Developmental Profile* for assessing the effects of the self-concept enhancement program. This assessment differs from the TSCVT in that it is a direct observation in a selected situation (rating) made by an observer, rather than a self report.

Table 3

Thomas' Findings of The Relationship of Child Characteristics to Self-Concept

TSCVT Scales	Number of Siblings (N=57)	Amount of Father Education (N=47)	Age (N=47)
Size		–.22*	
Sociability		.37**	
Ability	–.21*		
Fear of Things		.28**	
Fear of People		–.67**	
Cleanliness			–.26*
Health			.18*
Attractiveness	–.34**		
Material	–.27**		–.26**
Self-as-Subject	–.25*		
Self-as-Mother			.11*
Self-as-Teacher		.21*	
Self-as-Peer	–.41**	.24*	
Total Self-Concept	–.26*		

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.

The six *Developmental Profile* scales were designed to assess the effects of three areas of the *Human Development Program:* awareness, mastery, and social interaction. The specific scales include: (a) *awareness of self:* the child's awareness and acceptance of his feelings, thoughts and actions; (b) *self-confi-*

dence: the confident child responds freely and eagerly to new situations and to challenges; (c) *interpersonal comprehension:* the child's understanding of cause/effect aspects of one's behavior on another's; (d) *sensitivity to others:* being sensitive to others' feelings, the child will modify his own behavior for the benefit and concern of others; (e) *effectiveness:* the child's ability to cope appropriately with both internal needs and external, environmental demands; and (f) *tolerance:* the child's understanding and acceptance of individual differences.

The teachers were asked to rate each of their students on these six profile scales (scores ranging from 0-10) during the pretesting period and then again during the posttesting period. These two ratings were independent; that is, during posttesting ratings the teachers had no knowledge of their pretesting ratings.

Bessell and Palomares have not given any statistical data for their instrument, but they have reported several studies using their development program; and one, in particular, which used the *Developmental Profile* as an assessment tool. Elbert (1970) has reported the results of a study of a headstart program in Odessa, Texas, in which a standard headstart program (the control group) was compared to an experimental headstart program using the *Human Development Program* (the experimental group). He used a pretest posttest design to analyze changes for the control group and for the experimental group. The assessment tools included the *Developmental Profile* and the *Brenner Pre-School Test.* Elbert discovered significant changes for the experimental group but not for the control group; and thus, he concluded that the experimental group was 50 percent ahead of the control group children.

Statistical Procedures

The *Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* yielded nineteen scores and the *Developmental Profile* yielded six scores, producing a total of twenty-five self-concept indices. The self-concept scores for the experimental and control groups were analyzed separately. Hypotheses one and two were tested by a related *t*-test, which compared the difference between the means of pretest and posttest self-concept scores.

For hypothesis three a chi-square statistical analysis was used to test the significance of the changes in self-concept scores for the two groups combined. That is, to find which group had significantly more changes in self-concept scores.

Hypothesis four was tested by a stepwise multiple regression to find the significance of the relationships between child characteristics and self-concept scores for the entire pretest research sample (N = 57).

Research Population Sample

The population sample (pretest = 57, posttest = 52) consisted of all four-year-old children enrolled at Kiddie Kampus Preschool which met Monday, Wednesday and Friday. Being an Air Force Base population, the subjects represented many different geographical areas of the country and world. Although they could all be classified as middle-class, their ethnic backgrounds were diverse (Negro, Caucasian, Oriental) representing a heterogeneous sample of four-year olds.

The control group consisted of 18 children who were members of the afternoon session of Kiddie Kampus. There was a loss of four children from pretesting to posttesting; three moved away and one was eliminated because he did not receive the standardized testing procedure. The control subjects did not receive the self-concept enhancement program.

The experimental group consisted of 34 subjects; a loss of one subject who moved away between pretesting and posttesting. They were divided into three classes all meeting for the morning session of Kiddie Kampus. All three sections of the experimental group received the self-concept enhancement program from the investigator on every school day for eleven weeks. The sessions were twenty to thirty minutes in length.

Summary

Having considered the various aspects of methodology and design of this study, the investigator will proceed in the next section with a discussion of the characteristics of the population sample expressed in terms of descriptive statistics and an analysis of the research results.

ANALYSES OF DATA

The investigator conducted statistical analyses of the research data, and presents her findings in this section. First, a discussion is given of the descriptive statistics of the child characteristics for the population sample. Then, the separate findings of the statistical tests for hypotheses one, two, three and four are given.

Analysis of Child Characteristics

For the pretesting sample of children in both the experimental and control groups (N = 57), a statistical analysis was made of the fourteen child characteristics (assessed by the questionnaire). In Table 4 there has been given a description of these characteristics, how they were scored, and their mean and standard deviation values for the total population sample of four-year-old children.

Factors 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 12, and 14 are dichotomous variables; that is, their mean values indicate a proportion of the sample. For example, the mean for variable one (sex) tells us that 56 percent of the sample are males, and, therefore, 44 percent are females.

How these child characteristics actually related to the self-concepts of the population sample will be discussed under the section titled: test of hypothesis four.

Table 4

Description of Population Sample

Child Characteristics (how scored)	Mean	S.D.
1. Sex (1.0 if male) (0.0 if female)	.56	.50
2. Age (number of months)	52.14	3.63
3. Father's Education: College (1.0 if yes, 0.0 if no)	.67	.47
4. Father's Education: Graduate School (1.0 if yes, 0.0 if no)	.17	.38
5. Mother's Education: College (1.0 if yes, 0.0 if no)	.44	.50
6. Mother's Education: Graduate School (1.0 if yes, 0.0 if no)	.07	.26
7. Number of Siblings	1.47	.73
8. Order Among Siblings (1.0 = oldest) (2.0 = second) (etc.)	1.77	.93
9. Mobility (number of places child has lived)	3.33	1.12
10. Sesame Street (1.0 if child watches) (0.0 if child does not watch)	.58	.50
11. Number of Days Per Week Child Watches Sesame Street	1.23	1.67
12. Prior Preschool Experience (1.0 if yes) (0.0 if no)	.49	.50
13. Number of Months of Prior Preschool	3.39	4.43
14. Hospital Experience (1.0 if yes, 0.0 if no)	.26	.44

Test of Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis one was stated as: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the control group that did not receive the self-concept enhancement program?

A related *t*-test was used to find the significance of the difference between the means for pretest and posttest scores. Out of the twenty-five self-concept scales, nineteen from the TSCVT and six from the *Developmental Profile*, there were significant increases on three scales for the control group (see Table 5).

1. The *awareness of self* scores on the *Developmental Profile* increased significantly at the .01 level.
2. The *self-as-mother concept* scores on the TSCVT increased significantly at the .05 level.
3. The *total self-concept* scores on the TSCVT increased significantly at the .05 level.

Since twenty-five *t*-tests were conducted, it was not surprising to find significant changes on three of the scales. The investigator questioned whether the changes were attributable to maturity, to some unisolated variables, or to chance.

Table 5

Self-Concept Change for Control Group (N=18)

Self-Concept Scales: Thomas Self-Concept Values Test	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	*t* value
Happiness	2.56	3.50	–1.86
Size	0.56	0.22	0.57
Sociability	2.44	1.94	0.84
Ability	–0.61	0.00	–0.83
Sharing	0.11	1.17	–1.59
Male Acceptance	1.06	1.39	–0.47
Fear of Things	1.22	2.33	–1.72
Fear of People	1.89	2.89	–2.10
Strength	0.61	1.56	–1.15
Cleanliness	2.50	3.33	–1.59
Health	1.67	2.56	–1.07
Attractiveness	3.06	3.56	–1.45
Material	–2.56	–3.22	1.68
Independence	1.33	1.94	–1.14
Self-as-Subject Concept	4.83	6.17	–1.71
Self-as-Mother Concept	3.89	6.11	–2.25*
Self-as-Teacher Concept	3.89	5.44	–1.61
Self-as-Peer Concept	3.22	5.83	–1.93
Total Self-Concept	15.83	23.00	–2.88*

Table 5 (Continued)

Self-Concept Scales: Developmental Profile (Bessel)	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	*t* value
Awareness of Self	4.83	5.44	–3.05**
Self Confidence	5.50	6.06	–1.43
Interpersonal Comprehension	4.89	5.33	–1.51
Sensitivity to Others	4.72	5.22	–1.37
Effectiveness	4.61	4.89	–0.96
Tolerance	4.56	4.72	–0.51

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.

Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis two was stated as: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the experimental group that did receive the self-concept enhancement program?

A related *t*-test was used to find the significance of the difference between the means for pretest and posttest scores. Out of the twenty-five self-concept scales there were significant increases on fourteen scales for the experimental group (see Table 6).

1. The TSCVT self-concept value scores of *independence* increased significantly at the .05 level.
2. The TSCVT self-concept value scores of *happiness, sociability, sharing,* and the TSCVT self-concept referent scores of *self-as-teacher concept* increased significantly at the .01 level.
3. The *Developmental Profile* scores of *sensitivity to others* increased significantly at the .01 level.
4. The *Developmental Profile* scores of *awareness of self* and *self confidence* increased significantly at the .001 level.
5. The TSCVT self-concept value scores of *fear of things* and *fear of people* increased significantly at the .001 level. That is, the subjects scored higher which indicated less fear of things and less fear of people.
6. The TSCVT self-concept referent scores of *self-as-subject, self-as-mother, self-as-peer,* and *total self-concept* scores increased significantly at the .001 level.

Out of the twenty-five *t*-test conducted, it was meaningful to find significant changes on fourteen self-concept scales.

Table 6

Self-Concept Change for Experimental Group (N=34)

Self-Concept Scales: Thomas Self-Concept Values	Pretest	Posttest	
Test	Mean	Mean	*t* value
Happiness	1.71	3.03	–2.95**
Size	1.03	0.65	0.95
Sociability	1.94	3.12	–3.47**
Ability	–0.21	0.41	–1.21
Sharing	0.53	2.56	–3.64**
Male Acceptance	1.08	1.41	–0.49
Fear of Things	0.79	3.05	–5.61***
Fear of People	1.50	3.24	–3.97***
Strength	0.85	1.47	–1.05
Cleanliness	3.24	3.35	–0.46
Health	1.29	2.21	–1.84
Attractiveness	2.79	3.21	–1.27
Material	–2.27	–1.47	–1.76
Independence	1.06	2.47	–2.65*
Self-as-Subject Concept	3.32	7.18	–4.86***
Self-as-Mother Concept	3.35	7.24	–3.98***
Self-as-Teacher Concept	4.68	7.09	–3.45**
Self-as-Peer-Concept	3.88	6.91	–4.14***
Total Self-Concept	15.24	28.41	–5.25***

Self-Concept Scales: Development Profile	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	*t* value
Awareness of Self	4.41	5.24	–3.72***
Self Confidence	4.29	5.06	–4.15***
Interpersonal Comprehension	4.65	5.09	–1.69
Sensitivity to Others	4.38	5.24	–2.80**
Effectiveness	5.03	5.35	–1.13
Tolerance	4.97	5.18	–0.72

*Significant at the .05 level.
**Significant at the .01 level.
***Significant at the .001 level.

Test of Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis three was stated as: Will the experimental group have significantly more changes in self-concept scores from pretesting to posttesting than the control group?

A chi square statistical analysis was used to test the significance of the changes in self-concept scores for the experimental and control groups. With 1 degree of freedom a chi square value of 10.78 was found (significant at the .01 level). This statistical value indicated that the experimental group had significantly more changes in self-concept scores than the control group.

Test of Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis four was stated as: Will there be any significant relationships between child characteristics and their self-concept scores?

A stepwise multiple regression was used to test the significance of the relationship between the fourteen child characteristics from the questionnaire and the nineteen child self-concept scales from the TSCVT. The stepwise multiple regression procedure calculated multiple correlations of all fourteen independent variables with each of the nineteen dependent variables; and step-by-step eliminated independent variables not significantly related to each dependent variable. This statistical procedure concluded by identifying only the independent variables which were significantly related to each dependent variable.

Nine child characteristics were found to be significantly related to thirteen child self-concept scales. The t-test for significance of correlation coefficients was used to test each coefficient. At the .05 level the significant t value for these tests is 2.00; at the .01 level the significant t value is 2.66; at the .001 level the significant t value is 3.46. Following is a summary of the significant relationships:

1. Two child characteristics were found to be significantly related to the self-concept value of size:
    (a) The child characteristic of *sex* showed a positive relationship to *size* ($t = 10.37$). The male subjects showed a higher (more positive) perception of size than the female subjects.
    (b) The *frequency of children viewing Sesame Street* was positively related to their perception of *size* ($t = 4.11$).
2. The child characteristic of *mothers completing college* was negatively related to the children's perception of *sociability* ($t = 2.02$). The higher the mother's education level, the less children liked to be with others.
3. Three child characteristics were found to be significantly related to the self-concept value of *ability:*
    (a) There was a negative relationship between the *age* of the subjects and their self-perceptions of *ability* ($t = -3.10$). The older the subjects the lower their perceptions of ability.

(b) There was a negative relationship between the child characteristic of *father's attending graduate school* and the children's perception of *ability* ($t = -3.04$).

(c) A positive relationship was found between the *length of prior nursery school attendance* and the children's perception of *ability* ($t = 2.80$).

4. Three child characteristics were found to be significantly related to the self-concept value of male acceptance:
   (a) The child characteristic of *sex* showed a positive relationship to *male acceptance* ($t = 3.15$).
   (b) The child's *order among siblings* was negatively related to *male acceptance* ($t = -3.65$). The more distant the child was from being first born, the less the child liked to be with men.
   (c) The *frequency of children viewing Sesame Street* was positively related to *male acceptance* ($t = 2.73$).
5. There was a negative relationship between the *number of siblings* in the child's family and his *fear of things* ($t = 2.31$). The more siblings, the lower the child's score on this self-concept value; meaning the greater his fear of things.
6. The child characteristic of *sex* was positively related to the self-concept value of *strength* ($t = 3.46$). The male subjects showed a higher (more positive) perception of strength than the female subjects.
7. The *number of siblings* in the child's family was positively related to the self-concept value of *health* ($t = 2.45$). The more siblings, the more positive the child's perception of health.
8. The child characteristic of *sex* was negatively related to the self-concept value of *material* ($t = -2.81$). The male subjects showed a lower perception of material than the female subjects.
9. Two child characteristics were significantly related to the self-concept value of independence:
   (a) The child's *order among siblings* showed a negative relationship to *independence* ($t = -2.18$). The more distant the child was from being first born, the less he likes to do what others say (negative score).
   (b) The child characteristic of *viewing Sesame Street* was negatively related to *independence* ($t = -2.19$). The children who viewed Sesame Street scored lower

on the value of independence; they more often did not "like to do what others say", than the subjects not viewing Sesame Street (negative score).

10. Two child characteristics were significantly related to self-as-subject concept:
    (a) The child's *order among siblings* was negatively related to his *self-as-subject concept* ($t = -3.51$). The more distant the child was from being first born, the more negative his self-as-subject concept.
    (b) The *frequency of viewing Sesame Street* was positively related to self-as-subject concept ($t = 2.0$). The greater the child's frequency of viewing Sesame Street, the more positive his self-as-subject concept.
11. Two child characteristics were significantly related to the self-as-mother concept:
    (a) The child characteristic of *sex* was positively related to *self-as-mother concept* ($t = 2.54$). The male subjects scored higher on the self-as-mother concept than the female subjects. They perceived their mothers as seeing them more positively than did the female subjects.
    (b) The *frequency of viewing Sesame Street* was positively related to *self-as-mother concept* ($t = 2.04$). The greater the child's frequency of viewing Sesame Street, the more positive his self-as-mother concept.
12. The child characteristic of *sex* was positively related to the children's *self-as-peer concept* ($t = 2.86$). The male subjects scored higher on the self-as-peer concept scale than the female subjects. They perceived the other children in the class as seeing them more positively than did the female subjects.
13. The child characteristic of *sex* was positively related to the children's *total self-concept* ($t = 2.94$). The male subjects showed a more positive total self-concept than the female subjects.

Five of the child characteristics showed no significant relationships to the nineteen self-concept scales. They included fathers attending college, mothers attending graduate school, the child's prior nursery school experience, the child's mobility, and the child's hospital experience.

Summary

The statistical analyses of research data were presented in this section. They included: (a) descriptive statistics of the child characteristics for the population sample; (b) a related *t*-test of the difference in means (self-concept scores) for the control group from pretesting to posttesting; (c) a related *t*-test of the difference in means (self-concept scores) for the experimental group from pretesting to posttesting; (d) a chi square to test the significance of changes for the experimental and control groups from pretesting to posttesting; and (e) a stepwise multiple regression to test the significance of the relationships between child characteristics and the self-concept scores (from the TSCVT) for the population sample.

In the following section the summary, conclusions, and recommendations, based on the statistical findings outlined above, will be presented.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Current research in early childhood development has illuminated the need for preschool education and child care to concentrate directly on positive self-concept development. Yet, despite this strong encouragement, only the compensatory preschool programs have focused directly on the enhancement of children's self-concepts. Thus, there exists today a need to correct this imbalance by providing self-concept enhancement at the preschool level for *all* children. Such a precedence has been established in this present study of self-concept change in four-year-old children; by demonstrating that developmental guidance activities which focus on self-concept enhancement can be presented in an organized preschool program to middle-class children. Investigating the effects of such a program was the main purpose of the study. The population sample (pretest = 57, posttest = 52) consisted of an Air Force Base population, thus representing a heterogeneous sample of four-year-olds. For this population the following hypotheses were set up:

H_1: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the control group that did not receive the self-concept enhancement program?

H_2: Will there be a significant increase in self-concept scores for the experimental group that did receive the self-concept enhancement program?

H_3: Will the experimental group have significantly more changes in self-concept scores from pretesting to posttesting than the control group?

H_4: Will there be any significant relationships between child characteristics and their self-concept scores?

The self-concept enhancement program used for the experimental treatment was adapted by the investigator from several published developmental guidance programs, and presented to the experimental group (N=34) of four-year-olds attending the morning session of Kiddie Kampus Preschool, Grand Forks, Air Force Base, North Dakota. Thirty-three program sessions were conducted over an eleven week period. The control group (N=18) of four-year-olds, attending the same school for the afternoon session, did not receive the self-concept enhancement program. As prescribed by the pretest/posttest research design, both groups received the same testing program. Two instruments were used to assess self-concept change. *The Thomas Self-Concept Values Test* was administered individually by an experienced examiner to the population sample of four-year-old children. The *Developmental Profile* (rating) was completed by the teachers of the children in the population sample. These two instruments comprised the twenty-five self-concept scales used as the data for testing hypotheses one, two and three. A questionnaire of child characteristics was developed by the investigator and completed by each child's parents. This questionnaire and the TSCVT were the sources of data used for testing hypothesis four.

In the analyses of research data the investigator presented the descriptive statistics of the child characteristics for the population sample at the time of pretesting. Following this a discussion of the results for hypothesis one was given. Of the twenty-five related *t*-tests conducted to find the significance of the difference between means for pretest and posttest self-concept scores in the control group, only three scales showed significant increases; two at the .05 level and one at the .01 level. On the other hand, the results for hypothesis two show a remarkable contrast. Of the twenty-five related *t*-tests conducted, there were significant increases on fourteen scales for the experimental group; one at the .05 level, five at the .01 level, and eight at the .001 level. The chi square analysis used to test hypothesis three showed the experimental group to have significantly more changes (.01 level) in self-concept scores than the control group. Finally, a stepwise multiple regression was used to test the significance of the relationship beween the fourteen child characteristics from the questionnaire and the nineteen self-concept scales from the TSCVT, as stated in hypothesis four. Nine child characteristics were found to be significantly related to thirteen child self-concept scales.

Conclusions

From the statistical results presented the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The experimental group did, in fact, show more significant changes in self-concept scores than the control group, confirming hypothesis three. Since a control group was used to check intervening variables, the changes made in the experimental group could be attributed to the self-concept enhancement program. Furthermore, a parallel was observed between the significant self-concept scale changes in the experimental group and certain specific self-concept enhancement activities. In Appendix B a full description of each program activity has been provided. The self-concept enhancement activities focused on emotional developmental problems such as self-satisfaction, self-confidence, relinquishment of irrational fears, and improvement of social interactions (through sharing, etc.). By consulting Table 6 and comparing it to Table 5, profound differences can be seen in self-concept scale changes for the experimental and control groups. The experimental group showed very significant increases on the self-concept factor scales of happiness, sociability, sharing, fear of things, (less fear), fear of people (less fear), independence, awareness of self, self-confidence, and sensitivity to others. These changes were reflected not only in the children's self reports (TSCVT), but also in their teachers' ratings *(Developmental Profile)*; and furthermore, these scale changes showed a clear reflection of the activities presented to the children through the self-concept enhancement program. In contrast, the control group showed only one significant increase on a self-concept factor scale and this was in terms of awareness of self (a teacher rating). From this significant difference in self-concept score changes for the experimental and control groups the investigator concluded the existence of the program's salient effects on increased self-concepts in four-year-old children.

2. During the course of the treatment period, the investigator subjectively noted a growing openness on the part of the children. Given the medium for expression (that is, the various self-concept enhancement activities) the children became more free and deep in their expression of feelings and thus, could more effectively communicate with others. At the same time, through the use of the discussion rules (outlined in Appendix B), their

listening skills were improved. They seemed more aware of how other children perceived them and others. Lastly, they appeared to acquire an understanding of cause and effect relationships; that is, the relationship between the behavior of one person and the resultant feelings of another person. The teachers of the children remarked on how the children would often settle disputes with others by verbalizing their feelings, rather than by resorting to hitting or crying. At the conclusion of the program it was obvious to the investigator that the children could better cope with frustration. Thus, the investigator concluded that the goals and purposes of the self-concept enhancement program had been achieved by the experimental group.

3. At the conclusion of the study program the preschool administrator requested that the investigator meet with the control group twice a week for the remainder of the year and provide them with the same self-concept enhancement program that had been presented to the experimental group. As the administrator was a teacher of children from both the experimental and control groups she was in a position to note differences in their development. Her request was interpreted by the investigator as further subjective evidence of the value of a self-concept enhancement program at the preschool level.

4. In terms of the significant relationships between child characteristics and child self-concept scales, the investigator noted some contrasts between her results and those found by Thomas (summarized in Table 3. Thomas found six scales negatively related to the number of child siblings. The more siblings the child had, the less able and attractive he perceived himself; the less material possessions he perceived himself to have (the more he wanted); the more he perceived his peer's perceptions of him to be negative; and the less positive were his self-as-subject concept and total self-concept. From these results Thomas concluded that "the less the number of brothers and sisters, the greater are the prospects for the child to have a higher self-concept and perceive others to see him more positively" (1969, p. 38). The results of this study did not support Thomas' findings. In contrast there were found significant relationships between the number of child siblings and two self-value scales. The more siblings a child had, the greater his fear of things and the more positive his perception of health.

Thomas found six scales significantly related to the amount of father education. These were: the higher the level of education of the father, the higher the child sees his teacher's and peers' prception of him to be, the bigger the child sees himself, the more likely he is to play with other children, the more afraid he is of people, and the less afraid he is of things. Thomas deduced that the less educated the father the less afraid the child was of people. Again this study failed to support Thomas' findings. There was found a significant negative relationship between amount of father education and the child's perception of ability. Whereas, Thomas found a positive relationship between the amount of *father's* education and child's sociability, the investigator found a significantly negative relationship between the amount of *mother's* education and child's sociability.

A third variable analyzed by Thomas was the child's age, which he found to be significantly related to four self-concept scales. "The older the child is the more likely he is to see his mother's perceptions of him to be higher" (p. 38), the more likely he is to see himself as healthy, as having a lot of things, and the less likely he is to see himself as clean. The investigator found only one scale to be significantly related to age of the child; the older the child, the lower his perception of ability.

From these distinctly different study results, a limit to generalizing the findings from child characteristic and child self-concept relationships can be seen. The present study failed to support Thomas' research in terms of the child characteristics of age, number of siblings, and amount of father education. In this study more variables were explored and in greater depth. Fourteen child characteristics (in comparison to Thomas' three) were studied and nine were found to be significantly related to thirteen child self-concept scales. In presenting the results the investigator briefly discussed the direction of each relationship. Many of these findings invite further study with different population samples.

5. An obvious strength in the research design of this study was the use of two independent assessments of self-concept change. In addition to the self report assessment (TSCVT), the study was strengthened by also using a direct observational assessment. This was accomplished through the use of a teacher rating scale, the *Developmental Profile*, thus tapping another perspective of child self-concept — the observer. The investigator did note individual schemata of rating for each of the four teachers. One had consistently higher ratings for her children, while another had consistently lower ratings. Yet, because their pretesting and posttesting ratings were kept independent, significant changes in their perceptions of child behavior could be noted.

In the analysis of TSCVT data the investigator encountered some confusion with the manual description of scaling and scoring. In particular, the investigator was unable to make norm group comparisons for the research population of four-year-olds because Thomas' manual failed to define the norm group population on which his standard scores were based. Also the investigator found two of the value factor scales confusing in terms of their content validity. For example, the factor of size was scaled negatively for female subjects. If the girls stated that they see themselves as big or perceive others as seeing them as big, then they were given a negative score. The investigator and the examiner noted that children usually understood size to indicate maturity rather than strictly physical development. Thus, when the female subjects stated that they were "big" the investigator and examiner saw this as a declaration of maturation, not merely of physical size. This confusion obviously has an inconsistent effect on self-concept scoring for the female subjects. The investigator also questioned Thomas' rationale and weighing of the independence factor. If the children responded with "like to do what others say", then they were given a positive score. Yet, the investigator could not see how this indicated being highly independent.

The investigator stated these concerns and other questions in letters to Thomas. Unfortunately, no answer has been received from Thomas and there is still confusion as to certain aspects of the *Thomas Self-Concept Values Test*.

Recommendations

From any area of research there will arise many new avenues of exploration. Such is the case in this present study. The investigator set a precedence in presenting developmental guidance activities to preschool children with the purpose of assessing the program's effects on self-concept change. From the significant findings she was able to clearly answer the research hypotheses. When presented with a specific self-concept enhancement program, four-year-old children do show more positive changes in their self-concepts as compared with their peers not receiving the program.

The investigator recognizes the need to replicate this study in order to see if such profound results can be repeated. Extending the research analysis is another study possibility. For example, how do the three sections of children from the experimental group differ? Can their differences be attributed to teacher differences if the program presenter is the same for all three sections? In replicating the study there may also be a need to explore the relationship between child characteristics and self-concept scores for a new population sample. Through this approach more evidence would be known as to which environmental circumstances contribute to positive and negative self-concepts.

From the various significant relationships found in this study between child characteristics and child self-concepts the investigator sees future research possibilities in the following areas:

1. Sex was significantly related to several self-concept scales and, in particular, the children's total self-concept. For this population sample the males had a significantly higher total self-concept than did the female subjects. Dinkmeyer (1970, p. 466) noted that high self-concepts may be a defensive reaction (cultural based), especially found with male subjects. Both the results of this study and Dinkmeyer's conclusions indicate the need for more substantiated research in the area of sex differences in self-concept.

2. The child characteristic of birth order among siblings showed some significant relationships to certain self-concept scales. The birth order of the children was negatively related to male acceptance and independence. These results show widespread implications for child and parent counseling, and thus, warrant follow-up study.

3. The frequency of viewing Sesame Street had some interesting and significant relationships to certain self-concept scales. Currently there is some debate over the worth of children viewing this television show. This present study demonstrated that Sesame Street does show a positive relationship with a four-year-old child's self-as-subject concept, self-as-mother concept, child's assertion of doing things independently, child's male acceptance and child's perception of size. The value of such a medium for enhancing self-concepts should be recognized and studied in more depth.

Judging from the large amount of significant results found in this study, the recommendations outlined above are obviously only a few areas of potential research study. It is the intention of the investigator to further explore some of these important issues in self-concept development and change, hoping to further encourage interested individuals to follow.

The development of a positive concept of self is essential for a child's behavioral adjustment and mental health. By fostering this growth we can further help the child to establish inner harmony and to cope more effectively with life, thereby encouraging the ultimate goal of self-fulfillment.

Ed. Note: This study is currently being replicated by Martha Zachary, St. Paul elementary school counselor. She is working with a group of five-year olds most of whom are disadvantaged children. The design is essentially the same except the length of the sessions is shorter running about 15 minutes.

APPENDIX A

Self-Concept Scales

A. *Thomas Self-Concept Values Test*

1. Happiness
2. Size
3. Sociability
4. Ability
5. Sharing
6. Male Acceptance
7. Fear of Things
8. Fear of People
9. Strength
10. Cleanliness
11. Health
12. Attractiveness
13. Material
14. Independence
15. Self-as-Subject Concept
16. Self-as-Mother Concept
17. Self-as-Teacher Concept
18. Self-as-Peer Concept
19. Total Self-Concept

B. Bessell and Palamores *Developmental Profile* (adapted from Fels Rating Scales)

20. Awareness of Self
21. Self Confidence
22. Interpersonal Comprehension
23. Sensitivity to Others
24. Effectiveness
25. Tolerance

APPENDIX B

Self-Concept Enhancement Program

The following activities have been adapted from a variety of published developmental guidance programs for use in this study of the enhancement of self-concepts of four-year-old children. The programs include: *Focus on Self Development, Stage One: Awareness* program (Anderson, Lang, and Scott, 1970); *Developing an Understanding of Self and Others — DUSO* (Dinkmeyer, 1970); and *Scholastic/Kindle Sound Filmstrips for Early Childhood Education:* Who Am I? — The Concept of Self, and How Do I Learn? — The Concept of Learning (Carini and Callas, 1971).

I. Preface

Before describing the specific activities designed to foster self-concepts, some guiding principles are essential. One must constantly keep in mind the flexibility necessary for any guidance program, and the need to continually adapt materials for the immediate group of children and for the immediate setting.

The following attitudes and precepts outlined by Crovetto, Fischer, and Boudreaux in their study, "How He Sees Himself" (New Orleans Public Schools, 1968), are a useful starting place for one's work in self-concept enhancement.

A. Desirable attitudes

A basic understanding of children is essential for all adults who work with them

1. Insights
    - a. Remember that the child is not fragmented into parts any more than his environment is fragmented into elements. He is an integrated whole, functioning in a coordinated, organized universe; he may be small but he is extremely important.
    - b. Recognize that how a person feels is probably more important than what he knows. Help the child to express and understand his feelings.
    - c. Be aware that the attitudes of significant adults impart an indelible impression on the child's concept of himself. Through his relationships with others, the child grows in awareness, sensitivity, and perception.
    - d. Realize that the child's development of a feeling of adequacy depends on his receiving support,

reinforcement, and guidance during the periods of early childhood.

   - e. Keep in mind that, in order to become self-reliant, a child must have numerous opportunities to make choices.
   - f. Know that developmental timing is extremely important. The child's sense of independence may be destroyed by pressuring him to do that for which he is not ready.

  2. Precepts
   - a. Accept the child as he is.
   - b. Do not shame or embarrass him.
   - c. Do not cause him to doubt that he is a person of worth; respect him and his needs.
   - d. Discipline him, but let him know that you disapprove of his actions, not him.
   - e. Be firm but tolerant with him.
   - f. Meet negativistic behavior with kind firmness, consistency, knowledge of what constitutes a problem to the child.
   - g. Provide time for free play with little adult intervention into the child's world.
   - h. Prepare a stimulating environment based on sensitivity to the child's world.
   - i. Provide ample opportunity for *each* child to experience some success daily.
   - j. Listen to the child. Let him talk. Listen with your ears *and your eyes.*
   - k. Answer each child's questions honestly, attentively, and immediately, whenever possible.
   - l. Make the child feel that he is wanted, that he belongs and that he is free to make mistakes without penalty.

II. Introduction to Enhancement Program (20 minute sessions)

  A. Introduce program to the children by explaining that during this time every day we will focus on getting to know ourselves and each other better. Sometimes we will meet and think together about certain problems, or look at films, or listen to stories, or look at pictures, or dance to records, or make things, or play games, etc. Briefly explain counselor role and that individual counseling can be arranged at their request.

B. When we do meet to discuss certain problems we need to follow some rules to help us to work together better.

   1. Present discussion rules of DUSO: Introductory Story I: *The Underwater Problem Solvers* (DUSO manual, p. 28; also p. 14 for group discussion procedures). Duso, the Dolphin (puppet), and his friends use these rules when they think together about a problem.

   2. Post each rule and discuss:
      a. Lefty, the Octopus— Raise your hand
      b. Soupy, the Turtle — Listen carefully, don't go inside your shell when not talking
      c. Clarissa Clam — Don't clam up, share your thoughts
      d. Spike, the Swordfish — Stick to the point

C. Game

   Instructions: "Today we are going to play a game, and if any of you don't want to, then it's o.k. to watch instead. See if you can do the following things:"
   1. Close your eyes
   2. Nod your head
   3. Put your hands on top of your head
   4. Touch your ears
   5. Shake your head
   6. Stand up and turn around
   7. Put your hand on your toes
   8. Stand on your knees
   9. Fold your arms
   10. Smile
   11. Touch your nose
   12. Raise your hand like Lefty
   13. Now sit down and let's be Soupy Turtles

   Review discussion rules.

D. Give each child a turn to talk into a tape recorder and then to listen to his own voice. You might suggest to them that they talk about a problem or secret, or something they would like the group to think together about. Explain that we will use the tape recorder every time we meet.

E. Take a picture of the group together (Polaroid) and hang it up on the wall next to the group discussion rules and the picture of Duso and his underwater friends thinking together. You might explain that this is a picture of them thinking together. Post it with the discussion rules each time you meet to think about a problem together.

F. Filmstrip: *Sometimes I Wonder*. Show to children and then discuss some of the things that they wonder about or think about. Provides a good introduction to the subsequent units on self (*Focus* manual, p. 14).

III. The Physical Self

The main principle to stress is the significance of being unique. Being different is being special among all others.

A. Show to the group *Photoboard* No. 7 — a picture of a group of happy children. Have them discuss what is happening for a little while. Ask them if all the children in the picture look alike; and if not, then what makes them different (*Focus* manual, p. 18) ?

B. Listen to recorded story, *Cindy and the Elf*.

Overview of story: The theme story concerns a little girl, Cindy, who meets an Elf named Alfred. From this encounter, Cindy discovers that she knows very little about what she looks like. A number of children, like Cindy are unaware of basic facts about their own appearance. Certain activities can be used to encourage children to find out about their physical selves and thereby, become more aware of themselves as distinctive persons, similar to and yet different from everyone else (*Focus* manual, p. 18).

C. Game: Have each child sit in Alfred, the Elf's, magical chair and describe himself to Alfred and to the group. Provide a mirror so the child can look at himself following his description (to check it out). Ask him to describe his face, hair color, skin color, eye color, etc. If the child describes clothing, accept his response but ask him how we would know him if he wore different clothes tomorrow.

D. Activity: *Height and Weight.*

Materials. scale, tape measure, construction paper. Procedure: trace each child's feet and write his weight on each foot; trace each child's hands and write his height on each hand. Have each child cut out hands and feet and sew together with yarn and hang up in classroom. Or have child take one hand and foot home and hang the other hand and foot up in the classroom. Emphasize throughout that these belong to him alone, making him special and different from all others in the class. You might also encourage the children to compare their hands and feet (and height and weight) to the other kids in the class.

E. *Photoboards*

The questions for the photoboards are designed to prompt discussion. There is no need to cover all the questions. Much more important is to be guided by spontaneous discussion of the group.

Present and discuss the following photoboards; reinforce discussion rules for thinking together.

1. *Photoboard No. 1 — Boy looking at self in mirror*
   a. What is happening in this picture?
   b. What does the boy see?
   c. Does he like himself?
   d. Do you think he is alone in the room?
2. *Photoboard No. 2. — Female twins*
   a. Discuss uniqueness of each twin even though they are nearly identical in appearance.
3. *Photoboard No. 3 — Younger boy trying to reach bar on which older boy is chinning himself*
   a. What are some of the reasons some people do things better than others?
   b. Is it important to people to be able to do the same things that other people do? How do they feel when they can't?
   c. What are other boys thinking as they wait for their turns?

   (Photoboard questions are from *Focus* counselor handbook, JoAnn C. Anderson, 1970)

Give the children the opportunity to role play each photoboard situation and discuss how they felt in their part.

F. *Art activity: Self Portraits*

Have children look in mirrors at their faces and then color their faces on paper plates. Emphasize that they should look at the color of their eyes, skin, mouth, hair, etc., and draw what they see. Collect drawings and then sit in discussion circle. Hold up one face at a time and see if the group can guess who it is. Then have creator describe it (himself) to the group. If the child does not seem to recognize his different physical features (color, etc.) then encourage him to look in the mirror again. Hang faces in classroom.

G. Story presented by Duso, the Dolphin: *The Red and White Bluebird*. This story is about a red and white checkered bird who insists she is a bluebird because she feels bluebirds are more beautiful. Duso keeps telling her that she looks red and white to him. He finally convinces her that she looks best in red and white and is probably the only red and white checkered bird in the whole world. He gives her a ME button to wear to help her to accept and to like herself (Duso manual, p. 30).

Discussion circle (think together): talk about how the bird wouldn't accept self as she is. Main point to emphasize is that you are the only one in the world exactly like you. Although it is fun to pretend we are different things, don't pretend we aren't ourselves; accept ourselves.

H. Song: *I'm Glad that I Am Me*

1. I think I will be me. Why don't you be you? Acting like someone else is a crazy thing to do.
2. REFRAIN: I'm glad that I am me, that's who I want to be. Though there are changes I should make, I'm glad that I am me!
3. We are not all alike, why should we try to be? I will do the best I can, be happy that I am me.
4. REPEAT REFRAIN (Duso manual, p. 29).

I. *Art activity: ME Button or Badge*

The emphasis in this activity is on recognizing and appreciating differences in ability or achievement in children. Each child makes own button with ME on it. Have child cut out circle from colored paper and decorate it with different materials (crayons, articles to paste on like macaroni, sequins, yarn, marshmallows, etc.). Encourage the children to talk about their creations and how they are different (Duso manual, p. 32).

J. *Identification Game:*

The purpose of this game is to help children become aware of themselves as individuals (of their clothing as well as personality traits as seen by others). Have three children at a time look carefully at themselves in a full length mirror. Encourage them to focus on how they are different from others. Then have them stand in front of the rest of the class blindfolded. Ask child to see if he can identify himself from spoken descriptions by you and the other members of the class. Describe his physical characteristics as well as other characteristics like what he likes to do in school, etc.

K. Filmstrip: *The Joy of Being You* (Scholastic/Kindle Production: Unit One — The Concept of Self.

Discussion: When are you glad that you are you? What makes you a special person (things you do, secret thoughts)

L. At Halloween or when wearing different costumes (dressing-up) have children talk about what it is like to pretend to be someone else, something else, etc. (Where are *you* when you pretend to be a lion?)

IV. The Intellectual Self

The main principle of this unit is to have children understand themselves as learners.

A. Story: *The Traffic Light Song* presented by Duso, the Dolphin. Principle: There is a reason to learn. This story related the consequences of failing to apply what is learned. The children in a kindergarten class sing a traffic light song each day before leaving school. Nina, one of the children, applies the song to her actions by obeying the traffic light. Another child, Marty, though he sings the song every day, does not remember its words and is hit by a car when he runs into the street against the light. The immediate benefit of something learned in school is easily seen in this story. Emphasize applying what we learn in and out of school situations.

1. *Discussion:* What happened in the story? Ask children what they have learned so far that means something to them; one thing they can do now that they couldn't do before coming to school.
2. *Song:* Teach them the traffic light song: "Always watch the traffic light when you skip and hop. Green

means go, yellow means slow, and red means stop, stop, stop".

3. *Puppet play:* Give children appropriate puppets and have them re-enact the story or what they would do (Duso puppet activity V-D).

(Duso manual, p. 111)

B. Listen to recorded story: *Learning in the Park.* The main principle is for children to see the process of learning. It is suggested that you show the group a picture of a squirrel and identify him as the main character in the story; hang him up with the discussion rules. Overview of story: the theme story concerns two squirrels — Bushtail and his little brother Chipper — and their adventures in learning. The animals' experiences are intended to parallel those of kindergarten and first grade children. Some of the things that Chipper must learn, such as colors and numbers, are those that pupils frequently have not mastered when they first start school. The fact that Chipper does make headway in learning — and in one area knows more than Bushtail — should be encouraging, especially to youngsters who may have been ridiculed for their ignorance by older children.

1. *Discussion questions:*
   a. What are some of the different ways we can learn?
   b. How many of you have younger brothers or sisters at home? Do they know as much as you? Why not? Do you ever laugh at them? Do you ever help them?
   c. Think of all the things that Chipper needed to learn (how to jump, to count acorns, to tell colors of leaves). Have you learned some of these things? Did you learn them all at once? Your first try?

   (Focus manual, p. 23)

2. *Role Playing* (appropriate for younger children, especially three and four-year-olds): Have them pretend to be Chipper the squirrel and try to do all the things that he was learning. Have some of the children be Chipper, Bushtail, acorns, trees, fallen leaves, etc. They could also make up an end to the story.

C. *What's in the Bag Game:*

Materials: Paper bags, mystery contents.

Procedure: The purpose of this activity is to develop curiosity and to help children see how we can use our senses in learning more about something. Divide the children into pairs and give each pair a bag with something securely closed inside. Let them feel, smell, shake, etc. the bag to see what they can discover about the objects through their various senses. See if they can guess what it is. Then have them open the bag and describe it to the rest of the class. It is a good idea to use familiar objects around the school so they can relate this experience to continued learning (Duso manual, p. 106).

D. *Puppet Pantomime:*

To acquaint the children with puppets for future puppet activities. Have them move puppets to the following directions:

1. nodding head yes
2. shaking head no
3. stretching
4. scratching
5. waving
6. patting clay
7. pulling a load
8. falling forward
9. falling backward
10. sleeping
11. petting an animal
12. pushing an object
13. yawning

Allow them freedom to make up their own situations so that they can vent possible hostilities now (discussed in Duso manual, p. 22).

E. *Photoboards*

To be used for discussion and for initiating role playing. Before beginning discussion reinforce discussion rules for thinking together.

1. *Photoboard No. 4 — Father reading to son*
    a. Is this something you like to do?
    b. What might be some of the reasons the father would not read with the little boy every time the boy asked?
    c. If the father refused, what might the boy do?
2. *Photoboard No. 5 — Girl watching younger sister reach for pot on stove*
    a. What might happen to this little girl?
    b. What do you think the older sister will do?
    c. If the sister stops her, will the little girl learn?
    d. What else might happen?
    e. Who else in the family do we learn from?

3. *Photoboard No. 28 — Boy participating in classroom game*
   a. Some children seem to know more than other children. What are some of the reasons for this?
   b. If a person is not very good at something what can he do about it?
   c. If he can't figure something out, what might he do?
   (Photoboard questions are from *Focus* counselor handbook)

V. The Emotional Self

The major principles stressed in this unit are an increased awareness of feelings, what factors precipitate them, their variety, similarity to those of others, etc. Once children recognize and express different feelings, then they can assume responsibility for acting on these feelings (the choice to accept of change).

A. Filmstrip: *Circle of Feelings*

The film presents four feelings that children can readily identify—sadness, happiness, anger, and fear. It is narrated by a semi-humorous whimsical character called "circle of feelings". "Circle of feelings" shows some of his feelings to his audience. He shows in turn Sign Sadness, HaHa Happiness, Gurr Anger, and Trembly Fear, and describes various incidents that have caused him to display these feelings. Invite the class to join him in a song at the end.

1. *Song:* I have feelings you do too. I can sing about a few: I am happy, I am sad, I get scared, and I get mad. I am proud of being me, that's a feeling too you see. I have feelings you do too, let's all sing about a few.

   As children learn song encourage them to act out or exhibit the facial expressions of these different feelings (Focus manual, p. 28).
2. Illustrate the different characters from the film on large paper plates and hang them up with the discussion rules to aid in the discussion of these feelings.
3. *Discussion questions:*
   a. Did you hear what "circle of feelings" said? Can you remember the different feelings which he showed us?

b. How would you look if you felt happy? sad? angry? scared? What things happen to make you feel this way? (Focus manual, p. 34)

B. *Puppet activity:* Present a puppet to the group using ones from the Duso kit, and describe the particular feelings that it has right now. Ask if someone would like to play the puppet's part and tell us what is giving him this certain feeling. Then discuss what we can do to make him feel better.

1. *This is Susie and she is feeling real sad today.* Can anyone be Susie and tell us how she feels and what happened to make her sad? Give the puppet to one child at a time and discuss the situation before going on to next player or puppet role.
2. *This is Tom and he is real scared . . .*
3. *This is Mrs. Adams and she is really angry . . .*
4. *This is Pete and he is real happy . . .*

C. *Recorded Musical Activity:*

Includes five bands of instrumental music (10 minutes) each suggesting a different mood or emotion. May be used for movement activity where the children are encouraged to move to the music using their bodies not their voices. Afterwards they can discuss how the music made them feel. Or else it is possible to just play the record during free play and observe how they move in response to music. Stress that we can express our feelings with our bodies as well as in our faces, voices, words, etc. (Focus manual, p. 37).

D. *Photoboards*

To be used for discussion or initiation of role playing. Reinforce discussion rules for thinking together.

1. *Photoboard No. 7 — Group of Happy Children*
    a. What makes children happy?
    b. What makes adults happy?
    c. What are some of the reasons some people are happier than others?
2. *Photoboard No. 8 — Unhappy child being consoled by an adult*
    a. If something happens to make you feel sad or hurts you, what things can you do to feel better?
    b. What do angry people do?

3. *Photoboard No. 29 — Boys fighting while some children watch, and other children occupied elsewhere (playground scene)*
    a. What do you think about this picture?
    b. Which person is most like you?
    c. Why do people get into fights?
    d. Some children don't seem to be paying any attention, why?
    e. Has this ever happened to you?
    f. What do you do when someone wants to fight with you?
4. *Photoboard No. 37 — Boy getting shot from nurse*
    a. Would most children feel like crying when they get a shot?
    b. Is it wrong to feel like crying when one is scared or sad?
    c. Sometimes it's very natural to be afraid; what can we do or say?
5. *Photoboard No. 11 — Man admiring boys art work*
    a. What is happening here?
    b. Can children help parents be happy? All the time? Some of the time? None of the time? (*Focus* Counselor's Handbook)

E. Story: *You Don't Love Me Anymore* presented by Duso, the Dolphin. Summary: MaryAnn is punished and sent to her room by her mother. When Mrs. Johnson asks Mary Ann if she knows why she was punished, Mary Ann replies that it was because her mother doesn't love her anymore. To illustrate that parents punish because they do love their children, Mrs. Johnson recalls how they punished their dog, Wags, when he chased cars because they didn't want Wags to get hurt. As a result of this story children should be led to express how bad it feels to think they are unloved. They can also be led to understand what causes this feeling sometimes; that is their failure to realize why adults behave as they do. Discuss the story and see if children think it is better to explain to someone how you feel or to go off and be sad by yourself. Children usually relate how they react in such instances (DUSO manual, p. 55).

F. Filmstrip: *All Kinds of Feelings*
Discussion of filmstrip:

1. Do you have two different kinds of feelings? The feelings you have when you touch something or when you feel hot or wet. And the feelings you have inside . . . when you are happy or angry or loving.
2. Can you tell us something that makes you feel good? bad?
3. Can you see an itch? Can you feel it?
4. Can you see a tickle? Can you feel it? (demonstrate)

(Scholastic/Kindle Unit I: Concept of Self)

G. Story: *Let's Be Enemies* (by Janice M. Udry, Harper & Row, N.Y., 1961). The story of two boys who used to be friends and are now suddenly enemies. This continues until a common interest makes them forget their quarrel and they become friends again.

Discussion:

1. What did James do to make John mad?
2. What things did they do before which made them happy?
3. What did John threaten to do to James?
4. What did he do instead?
5. Were they enemies at the end?

H. Game: *How Do You Feel?*

1. Have children draw their faces with the four different feelings we have discussed (happy, angry, scared and sad). This can be done on one piece of paper and an arrow added which can be moved to one face at a time. Or draw on a piece of construction paper the six segments of a box, and have the children draw a face in each square. Then they can fold the squares and the box can be taped together. A pipecleaner can be poked through so they can hold their box with greater ease for the game. Provide other materials (straw, yarn, etc.) so they can further decorate their boxes. This usually takes one full session and the next time they can play the game and then take their feeling boxes home. Instead of boxes they can also construct finger puppets for each feeling.
2. Game: explain that you will read certain statements and ask them to indicate with one face of the box how they would feel in this situation. You can go

through each statement or else discuss their responses to each one in greater depth, focusing on the varied reactions, etc. Use the following questions or make up ones to better suit your setting.

a. How do you feel when someone says you are not nice?
b. How do you feel when someone scolds you?
c. How do you feel when someone smiles at you?
d. How do you feel when someone says he likes you?
e. How do you feel when you tell your mother you love her?
f. How do you feel when you tell someone you hate them?
g. How do you feel when you are angry?
h. How do you feel when you get up in the morning?
i. How do you feel when you are going to a party?
j. How do you feel when you win a game?
k. How do you feel when your friend spills juice on you?
l. How do you feel when someone else wins a game?
m. How do you feel when someone says I don't like you anymore?
n. How do you feel when you have a new toy?
o. How do you feel when your toy gets broken?
p. How do you feel when you make friends with someone?
q. How does it feel to get pushed in line?

(Duso manual, p. 56)

VI. The Social Self

The main principle is to help children become more aware of themselves as social beings—ones who live among others and interact with them. Helping children develop a sense of equality is largely a matter of helping them to recognize that each of us is a person of value. Every other person is just as important to himself as I am to myself. Thus, making it possible to develop empathy, courtesy, respect for others, etc.

A. Story: *First in Line* presented by Duso, the Dolphin. Summary: In this story four children at the drinking fountain start pushing and pulling to get a drink. When the teacher reprimands them that they should take turns, they stop and listen, and start pushing again. The teacher makes them sit down and examines their reasons for wanting to be first. They conclude that they each want to be first because each one thinks that he is more important than the other. The teacher points out the fact that the first-come, first-serve rule is made because each child has just as much right to be first as every other child, since they are all equally important.

Discussion: (reinforce discussion rules)

1. What do you see happening in this story?
2. What would you have done?
3. What are your rules for lining up?
4. Why are these rules important?
5. How would you want to change them?

(DUSO manual, p. 159)

B. Listen to recorded story: *Lonesome Ben*

Summary: The central character of the story is Ben, a little boy looking for attention and companionship. Engrossed in preparations for a party at the church Ben's mother cannot take him on their weekly visit to Mrs. Patterson's; his father has no time to play with him; his older brother is not around. Ben does not fully understand why no one is paying any attention to him. He understands only that he has nothing to do and no one to play with (Focus manual, p. 38).

Discussion:

1. Have you ever felt the way Ben felt? Has anyone ever been too busy to play with you?
2. Why do you think Ben's mother got angry with him?
3. If you were Ben what would you do?
4. What are some of the times you want to be with other people?

C. Problem situation for discussion: *Jerry Cries*

This episode shows Jerry, disappointed because he was not chosen for a game, and giving an excuse for crying which was not true. Try to show children that we often feel disappointed or sad, particularly when a group is having fun and we are not. Help children to analyze their emotions and to see that there are alternatives to crying.

Procedure: (read to children)

The children were playing Duck-Duck-Goose. Jerry wanted to play very much, but he was not chosen, so he had to watch from the side. He felt sad. All of a sudden he started to cry. The teacher asked, "What's wrong, Jerry?". Jerry didn't want the teacher to know why he was crying, so he answered. "Donny hit me hard when he went past me". "Jerry, Donny didn't even touch you. He went the other way. Why are you crying?" "I don't feel well" replied Jerry.

Ideas to discuss:

1. Why do you think Jerry started to cry?
2. Do you think the children knew why he was crying?
3. Could Jerry let the other children know he was sad any other way?
4. How do you feel when you don't get chosen in a game?
5. What would you do if you didn't get chosen?

(DUSO manual, p. 76)

D. Role playing activity: *Lost*

This activity is designed to help children develop ways to handle an anxious situation. Getting lost or separated from their parents is not an uncommon experience for children. Through enactment and discussion of alternative reactions to the same situation, the children are encouraged to evaluate different ways to behave and their possible results.

1. *Introduction:* Have you lost something? What is it? Pantomime—Let's pretend that you have lost something that you like very much, something that you need very much. See how carefully you can look for it. It must be somewhere in this room.

   How did you feel when you were looking for it? Did you think you would find it? What was it you were looking for?

2. *Setting the situation:* Once upon a time there was a little girl who went to school just as you do. Every day her mother drove her to school. One day mother found out that she had to take grandmother to the doctors. So the mother called the school and asked them to tell the child that she was to go home with her friend Janie. When the teacher gave the little

girl these instructions, she was not listening. The girl was thinking about a chocolate ice cream instead. She did not hear about Janie. After school she went outside to wait for her mother as usual. Her mother didn't come and didn't come. It grew later and later. How do you think the little girl felt? Let's play it.

3. *Enactment:* You may all imagine that you are the little girl or boy just getting out of school. You stand there and wait for your mother. The other children leave. It gets later and later, darker and darker. What do you do?
4. *Discussion:* How did you feel when it got later and later and no mother? Has that ever happened to you? What did you do? What did you do just now?
5. *Setting the situation:* Finally, when the mother didn't come, the little girl decided to walk home. Now, she wasn't sure just which way to go, but she thought she knew the way all right. Pretty soon she came to a street of houses that were very different from her own. She knew she was going the wrong way. What do you think she did then? Let's play it.
6. *Enactment:* Select a volunteer to be the lost girl trying to find her way home.
7. *Discussion:* How did the little girl solve her problem? Would you have done that? Why? Why not? How do you think the girl finally got home? (encourage suggestions); What are some good things to remember when you get in trouble? What are some good things to do?

   (DUSO manual, p. 145)

E. Game: *The Nice Way to Say It*

Let the children act out the nice way to tell someone and the poor way to tell someone:

1. To help you do something.
2. That he should not play in a certain place.
3. That you don't want to play today.
4. That he is not playing fair.

(DUSO manual, p. 75)

APPENDIX C

Child Characteristic Questionnaire

INFORMATION SHEET

CHILD'S NAME ______ BIRTH DATE ______

FATHER'S NAME ______ LEVEL OF EDUCATION COMPLETED (CIRCLE): High School College Graduate School

MOTHER'S NAME ______ LEVEL OF EDUCATION COMPLETED (CIRCLE): High School College Graduate School

NAMES OF BROTHERS AND SISTERS	SEX	AGE

PLEASE LIST THE AREAS OF THE COUNTRY OR WORLD WHERE YOUR CHILD HAS LIVED:

______

______

______

______

______

DOES YOUR CHILD WATCH THE T.V. SHOW SESAME STREET?

______ HOW MANY DAYS PER WEEK? (CIRCLE): 1 2 3 4 5

HAS YOUR CHILD ATTENDED NURSERY SCHOOL BEFORE THIS YEAR? ______ HOW LONG? ______

WHAT ILLNESSES OR HOSPITALIZATION HAS YOUR CHILD EXPERIENCED?

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A COMPARISON OF THE EFFECTS OF TWO METHODS OF DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE ON THE SELF-CONCEPT, PEER RELATIONSHIPS, AND SCHOOL ATTITUDES OF SECOND GRADE CHILDREN

Grace E. Darrigrand and Moy F. Gum*

Introduction

The way a child sees himself has a major effect on the way he lives his life. As Coopersmith (1967) says, a child with high self esteem responds to challenges and troublesome conditions, achieves success and is likely to be enterprising, active and exploratory. A considerable body of evidence indicates that the child with a poor self-concept will be more anxious, less well-adjusted, less popular, less effective, less honest and more defensive. (McCandless, 1961) It is generally accepted that children with poor self-concepts do not learn well (Peters in Dinkmeyer 1968, Brookover, 1969).

It is beneficial to the child as a student and as a person that he be aided in achieving a better self-concept; that he be all he can be. In Maslow's words "What a man can be, he must be;" (1954, p. 91) so be it with a child.

"The role of the school in teaching children self-worth, in giving them the knowledge and tools necessary to succeed in our society, concerns us now". (Glasser, 1968, p. 25) According to Bills (1969), the elementary school has an advantage over parents in helping children develop self-worth since it can provide greater reinforcement through the child's peers. Much of a child's conception of self is developed and formed through his school experiences. Dinkmeyer (1968) affirms that the elementary school child is in the process of formulating a self-concept and life style. It is clearly the responsibility of the school to aid each child in forming the most positive self-concept possible.

Of great influence upon a child's self-concept is his relationship with his peers. As Gum (1969) notes:

> To further compound the problem and yet indicate the importance of the social-interpersonal realm is the fact that more and more current literature and research indicates that one's self-concept and feelings of adequacy are highly related to his ability to

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**Ms. Darrigrand conducted the study in cooperation with Dr. Gum, Professor of Psychology, University of Minnesota, Duluth. The study was sponsored by Pupil Personnel Services, Minnesota Department of Education, out of Title III funds under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.*

> relate successfully with his peers, his peers' perception of him, and especially his perception of how his peers see him.

Gum continues, pointing out that the elementary school is a vital setting for a child's early development of social relationships because of the variety and number of people, peers and adults, with whom he comes in contact. Not only does one's peer group influence his self-concept, but they are of great significance to his scholastic and emotional development. A positive change in personal-social adjustment can be correlated with a gain in educational achievement. (Martin, 1959) However, often social development is far overshadowed by cognitive learning, and social skills are left to be acquired by "just growing up."

It is imperative that the school recognize this important need of children. As Munson (1970) remarks: "The need for acceptance by one's peers is a social influence of great importance to every person and the school has an obligation to help children understand and cope with this phenomenon." (p. 205)

It is also very important for a child to have a positive attitude toward school. Bloom (1954) suggests that the affective and cognitive domains are closely related, in fact, the two can never be completely separate. Feelings toward school have a definite effect on what and how one learns. Gum states that: "Developing a positive attitude toward school or developing a positive attitude toward learning so that the child learns to want to learn are affective objectives a school has direct responsibility to facilitate." (1969, p. 15) In developing this positive attitude, William (1965) observes that the primary needs of students are affective; when these needs are considered, there is possibility of increased positive attitudes toward school. In increasing positive attitudes toward education, the school must assume the responsibility of meeting the affective needs of children as well as their cognitive needs.

Statement of Problem

In today's culture where strong emphasis is placed on the development of the whole person, society demands that the school assume the responsibility of being involved with the development of a good self-concept, adequate interpersonal relationships, and positive school attitudes. One approach to facilitating positive change of self-concept, bettering peer relationships, and fostering positive school attitudes is through a program in Developmental Guidance.

This study deals with the effectiveness of two types of Developmental Guidance. The first approach to Developmental

Guidance was formulated around the use of Developmental Guidance Experiences (DGE). These experiences are short units written by the members of the Elementary Guidance and Counseling NDEA Institute at the University of Minnesota, Duluth, under the direction of Moy Gum and Don Bender. The purpose of the units is to foster growth in areas of eight developmental tasks defined by Havighurst. (see appendix A). The units are designed to be open, flexible and subject to change.

The second approach to developmental guidance is defined by its authors, Bessell and Palomares, as:

> . . . a curricular approach for educational programs which is designed to give children the opportunity to become constructively involved in developing their own personal effectiveness, self-confidence, and an understanding of the causes and effects in interpersonal relationships. (Introduction, Level B, 1969)

Hypothesis

The purpose of this study is to test the propositions that (1) both methods of developmental guidance help to develop a positive self-concept, facilitate better peer relationships, and form more positive attitudes toward school; (2) one approach to developmental guidance is more effective than the other; and (3) intensive short term exposure in specific areas can facilitate change.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Developmental Guidance — A Definition

As elementary guidance grows there are various points of emphasis concerning it. The theory involved here is that of developmental guidance. Gum (1969) in differentiating types of elementary guidance says:

> The developmental point of view is more positively growth oriented . . . seeking to provide maximum growth experiences to enhance and facilitate healthy develpoment in view of our understanding of the 'critical periods' or (as Havighurst refers to them) 'developmental tasks'. This term is defined by Havighurst (1948) as follows: 'A developmental task is a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the

> society, and difficulty with later tasks.' (p. 6) Thus, from the developmental viewpoint, the administration, the teachers, the guidance worker and the curriculum itself would focus on providing those enhancing experiences in appropriate sequential order and at the 'teachable moment' so as to maximize growth of all individuals. (pp. 11-12)

Young (1962), in speaking of the elementary guidance in a broad developmental sense, emphasizes that: "The guidance movement, with its aim of helping each child achieve his maximum potential for personal happiness and social usefulness, seems to offer the best vehicle through which to bring aid to children in dealing with their problems." (p. 1240)

Developmental Guidance can be seen as a program to help all children as Eckerson (Dinkmeyer 1968) suggests:

> Guidance in the elementary schools assists all children directly, and indirectly through their teachers and parents, in making maximum use of their abilities for their own development and for the good of society. The emphasis on the early recognition of intellectual, emotional, social and physical strengths and weaknesses, on the developing of talents, on the prevention of conditions which interfere with learning, and in the early use of available resources to meet the needs of children. (p. 113)

The intent of developmental guidance, then, is to aid each child in developing to his fullest potential by giving him the tools he will need to master developmental tasks. In mastering these tasks, Dinkmeyer (1968) states that developmental guidance should be aware of the child's need to mature in self-acceptance and in his understanding of self, to develop a more realistic self-concept, to mature in social relationships, to belong, to identify, to develop independence, to take on responsibility, to make choices, and to mature in his ability to plan.

A specific program of developmental guidance, the Human Development Program (Bessell, 1967) lists among its major aims promoting personal effectiveness, realizing potential talents and personal satisfactions, increasing awarness of self and others; furthering social usefulness, personal happiness, technical effectiveness and social interaction.

The above are the general aims of most programs of developmental guidance. The question is how can these aims most effectively be realized. The following section reports studies dealing directly with developmental guidance aims.

Research in Developmental Guidance

Ralph Ojemann (1942, 46, 56) has compiled research evidence to substantiate his analytical approach to changing human behavior. His analytical approach involves understanding why people do what they do. As Ojemann (1956) explains some of his results: "As the child learns more about people's feelings and the situations they face he may find it easier to accept them and to work with them. Similarly as the child becomes more at home in his social environment, he may be more willing to assume responsibility." (p. 135) Ojemann (1956) also discovered that children sensitized by his methods to the analytical approach were less authoritarian and more willing to assume responsibility.

Stobetz and Lund (1955), in a study with fifth graders, found that a regular program concerned with personal development made significant differences in areas of social adjustment. In general, a permissive atmosphere was encouraged, and boys and girls were helped to understand themselves as real human beings. It was also found that there was positive personality growth.

The purpose of a study by Martin (1959) was to determine the effectiveness of selected guidance activities upon the personal-social adjustment and the concomitant educational achievement of four groups of fifth grade children for a ten week period. The groups were matched for intelligence and social-status characteristics. The groups were measured in characteristics relative to personal-social adjustment and educational achievement, and were found to be comparable. In group I (experimental), the teacher was given the pre-test results and an evaluation of each child. The counselor shared stories of behavioral problems with the group. The group discussed, wrote about, and dramatized the stories. Other guidance activities used with the group included: group therapy, counseling, role playing, counselor-parent conferences, and teacher-counselor conferences. In group II, the teacher was given the pre-test results and an evaluation of each child. The counselor was available as a consultant. In group III, the teacher was given the pre-test results and an evaluation of each child. The counselor was not available for consultation. In group IV, the teacher was not given the test results or evaluations until the end of the experiment. There were significant differences in the educational achievement and personal-social adjustment of the four groups. Significant differences were found between groups I and II, and I and III, and I and IV; however, non-significant differences were found between groups II and III, II and IV, and III and IV. The conclusions drawn were that positive changes in personal-social adjustment and education achievement took place when the counselor provided regular guidance activities that were integrated in the regular school process. These changes were unlikely to occur when the teachers were provided only an evaluation or counselor consultation.

An investigation comparing a broad developmental guidance role with a psychotherapeutic role of the elementary counselor was conducted by Oldridge (1963). His results showed that guidance workers and staffs significantly preferred the guidance role. The guidance role included helping children understand behavior through guidance groups and teacher consultations.

Research in Related Areas

Since little research directly connected with developmental guidance has been conducted, the following reviews of studies in related areas are included which contain information on self-concept, peer relationships, and school attitudes. These reviews are relevant and pertinent to the support of the hypothesis of this study.

Most experts agree that the early school years are most important in development of a good self-concept. Hurlock (1964) states that self-concept stabilizes as a child grows older and thus the self-concept becomes more difficult to change.

Trickett (1969) found in her research on stability and predictability of children's self-concept, that changes in self-concept do occur between the ages of six and ten. She summarized that these changes may be due in part to clues the primary grade child receives from his referents — school peers and significant others. One of the main tasks for a child of this age, according to Erikson (Maier, 1965), is to form a firm sense of autonomy and identity. One of Havighurst's (1948) development tasks for this age is "building a wholesome attitude toward oneself as a growing organism." At the present time, this development is left mainly to chance (Coopersmith, 1967, Munson, 1970, Jersild, 1952). Nevertheless, there is a growing awareness that this important area of development should not be left unnurtured. As Coopersmith says "For both psychologists and laymen, 'self-esteem' has great significance — personally, socially and psychologically. It is, therefore, disconcerting that so little is known about the conditions and experiences that enhance or lessen self-esteem." (p. 1)

Baty (1969) conducted a study to evaluate the influence of elementary school counseling on children of low self-esteem. The sample population was forty-eight fifth and sixth grade children from three elementary schools. The schools were of two types, middle-upper and middle-lower class. The study was conducted with matched pairs of children. The children in the experimental group were given two thirty minute counseling sessions per week for six weeks. The counselors involved chose their own approaches. The counseled group improved significantly in self-esteem as measured by sociometric ratings and counselor evaluations. There was not a significant difference as measured by student self ratings and teacher evaluations.

George Coleman (1969) conducted a study to identify and reduce negative self-concepts in fourth, fifth, and sixth grade disadvantaged children. The children with negative self-concepts were identified through an instrument called the *Negative Self-Concepts Instrument.* This was followed with a carefully designed period of teacher pupil involvement and interaction in an attempt to assist each child in the search for a more positive self image. This program took place over a six month period. It was found that there was a reduction in negative self-concepts. It is possible, then, through school relationships to change a child's self-concept.

From his study involving elementary boys, Coopersmith (1967) states that children need respectful, accepting, and concerned treatment from significant others in their lives, as well as a background of successes, experiences which are interpreted according to the child's own value and aspirations, and an appropriate manner of responding to devaluation.

A study by Brown (1967) explored changes in students' self-concept and academic achievement in a short term summer enrichment program called SPUR. It involved seventy-three boys and girls of average or better intelligence and good achievement. There were no significant changes. It was concluded that it is doubtful that self-concept can be changed in a short term focused mainly on academic endeavors.

Perkins (1958) conducted a study involving eight classrooms and 251 children in seven schools. He found that (1) self-concept and ideal self-concept became increasingly and significantly more congruent through time, (2) self-ideal self congruencies of girls generally were significantly greater than those of boys, (3) children of teachers in a child study program showed significantly greater self-ideal self congruency than children of teachers not in the program, and (4) little to no relationship existed between changes in childrens' self-ideal self congruency on the one hand and (a) changes in school achievement and (b) changes in their acceptance by peers, on the other.

Various methods and techniques have been found to be effective in changing self-concepts. Taylor (1955) found that self introspection, self description and repeated description of self-ideal self resulted in more positive self-concept. Torrance (1954) found that self evaluation contributed to the development of a more realistic self-concept.

Carlton (1963) asserted that dramatization directed by the children themselves brought about changes in self-concept. The purpose of that study was to determine the adaptability of techniques of self-directive dramatization to the regular classroom, and to discover the effects on reading achievement and self-concept changes of students. The groups involved in this study ranged from second grade to seventh grade. The time lapse was three and one-half months. Each group was involved in self-directed dramatization. On an achievement test in reading and a self-concept questionnaire, changes were found. These changes indicated a significant improvement. Permanency of the self-concept changes were indicated. A correlation between improved self-concept and greater progress in reading was found in grades two, three, four, five and six.

In summing up their study on self-concept and school adjustment, Williams and Cole (1968) state:

> The finding that a student's self appraisal was significantly related to the group's appraisal of him lends support to the contention that communication from significant others affects the self-concept and suggests the feasibility of altering the self-concept by changing the condition of social status. . . . One approach toward enhancing social status might be the structuring of group activities so that the child is permitted to demonstrate a particular skill before his fellow students. (p. 480)

Mann (1969) conducted a study involving thirty-six educable mentally retarded boys from the ages of nine to thirteen. Group counseling involving role playing, discussion, and experience sharing took place for twelve sessions. Instruments measuring educational achievement, self-concept and anxiety were administered. Results indicated improved self-concepts, anxiety reduction and better academic achievement.

Mayer's (1966) study compared the effects of counseling, teacher guidance, and no treatment upon peer relationships of elementary students and their school attitudes. The students involved in the study who indicated that they would like to get along better with their classmates ranked in the lower half of their class in sociometric status. There were no significant differences found in the sociometric status or school attitudes of the three groups. However, concludes Mayer, this does not necessarily mean that differences do not exist.

Similarly, Kranzler, Mayer, Dyer and Munger (1966) conducted a study with four, fourth grades. The five students with the lowest sociometric status in each class were randomly assigned to one of three treatment groups: (1) counseling, (2) teacher guidance, and (3) control. The treatment lasted twelve weeks. A post sociometric test indicated that the status of the counseled group and the guidance group improved significantly and remained stable over an eight month period.

Fey (1955) in a study on acceptance by others, recognized that people with high acceptance of others feel accepted and are accepted by others.

Hansen, Niland, and Zani (1969) assessed effectiveness of group counseling with elementary school children using sociometric status as a relevant criterion for results. Students of low sociometric status were divided into three groups: (1) model reinforcement group, (2) no model group, and (3) control group. The low status students in the model reinforcement groups made significantly more gain than those in groups without models and in control groups.

Summary

Developmental Guidance can be defined as a broad growth oriented view of guidance. It enhances the growth of all children and maximizes their potential for happiness, success and social usefulness.

There are various approaches to the fulfillment of the aims of developmental guidance. Ojemann has evolved an analytical approach to changing and understanding behavior. His research indicated that a child can learn about feelings, behavior and situations, and that such knowledge will aid him as he meets new situations. This approach concurs with the developmental guidance approach.

Stobetz and Martin maintained that programs in personal development and guidance made significant differences in areas of personal-social adjustment. Slobetz' study involved a program concerned with understanding personal development and helping boys and girls to develop as complete human beings. In Martins' study, a counselor conducted activities designed to enhance growth. The aims of these programs parallel the aims of developmental guidance.

Research involving self-concept, school attitudes, and peer relationships is limited. Available research indicates that self-concept can be changed between the ages of six and ten. Self-concept can be enhanced through concerned accepting others, self introspection, self description, dramatization, and peer evaluation. Sociometric status can be improved through counseling, teacher guidance and model reinforcement groups. Some of the studies show limited or no change after various treatments.

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to test the effectiveness of Developmental Guidance Experiences and the Human Development Program in developing a more positive self-concept, bettering peer relationships and improving attitudes toward school.

Sampling

The children involved in the study attended Grant and Ensign Elementary Schools, Duluth, Minnesota. The school drew from the same type of population, and were matched by Richard Pearson, Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel Services. School Figures are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Similarities of Schools Involved in the Study

	Comprehensive test of basic skills — Average grade level or achievement				AFDC* rank	Md. Income	% below $2,000	Md. grade ** adults completed
	G.3	G.4	G.5	G.6				
Ensign	4.2	5.0	6.1	6.8	18	$5,695	7.2	10.4
N	55	61	52	62				
Grant	4.1	5.1	6.1	7.3	22	$5,543	9.1	11.3
	55	58	51	65				
City	X	X	X	X	X	$5,877	8.16	11.5

*Aid for Dependent Children (Count 1972) rank among 32 schools fewest to highest
**In the area from which school draws population

All of the children in the second grade in both schools were involved. Each school had two second grade classrooms with one teacher for each room. The class sizes varied from twenty-eight to thirty students. The difference in ratio of boys to girls in each group was as follows: Control groups eighteen boys, eleven girls; Experimental group eleven boys, eighteen girls; Experimental Group Two fourteen boys, fourteen girls; Experimental Group Three nineteen boys, eleven girls.

Treatment Procedures

One class was established as a control group; the other three classes were experimental groups. Each experimental group was given a different treatment.

Treatment One was a Developmental Guidance Program which was designed and developed under the direction of Gum and Bender, University of Minnesota, Duluth as noted earlier. The program, built around Havighurst's developmental tasks (Appendix A), provided developmental guidance experiences that were designed to help children develop the necessary skills to master these tasks. These Developmental Guidance Experiences were prepared by the members of two Elementary Guidance and Counseling Institutes, University of Minnesota, Duluth, and supplemented by the counselor. The Developmental Guidance Experiences were designed to be flexible, interchangeable growth experiences. They included many kinds of activities and techniques such as dramatization, discussions, stories, games, unfinished stories, expressions of feelings, self evaluations and descriptions, peer evaluations, and feedback from counselor and peers. The experiences used dealt with each of Havighurst's tasks. (Appendix B) The specific experiences employed were those deemed appropriate by the counselor with some teacher suggestions. Treatment 1 was used in Experimental Group 1. The counselor shared experiences with Experimental Group 1 approximately twenty minutes each school day for fifty sessions.

Treatment 2 was a Human Development Program written by Bessell and Palomares and described in Chapter 1. The program was a systematic plan of lessons which were meant to provide for the development in children of skills needed for effective personal adjustment, success in academic endeavors, and other challenges of life. (Appendix C) Treatment 2 was used in Experimental Group 2. The counselor met Experimental Group 2 approximately twenty minutes each school day for fifty sessions in administering Treatment 2.

In Treatment 3, the program of Developmental Guidance Experiences used in Treatment 1 was again used, however, it was not started until twenty-five school days following the first measuring. The specific experiences shared centered around Havighurst's developmental tasks No. 3 "learning to get along with age-mates", and No. 8, "developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions". A few experiences from the other task areas were used especially in the fulfillment of teacher requests. Treatment 3 was used with Experimental Group 3. The sessions were approximately twenty minutes every school day for twenty-five sessions.

The control group had no contact with the counselor during the treatment period.

Measurement

Three instruments were used for measuring and all three were administered both pre and post treatment. The instrument used to measure self-concept was a "Self Concept Instrument" developed by Sears (1963). The original test had 100 items and a reliability of the overall mean self rating of .95. The instrument was condensed to fifty items by Gum and Bender, retaining a split half reliability of .95. The fifty item instrument was used in this research (Appendix H). The instrument was given in two sessions. In the first session, the child ranked himself as he saw himself. In the second session, the child ranked himself as he would like to be. Sears uses the discrepancy score as the self-concept score. The instrument was administered by the counselor after the counselor had established some rapport with each class. Each item in the instrument was read aloud to the group by the counselor.

The instrument used to assess peer relationships was a Social Distance Scale which was also developed by Sears (1963, Appendix G). In this instrument, each child individually ranked every other child on a scale ranging from "Would like to have him as one of my best friends," to "Dislike him." The child's feeling about each of his classmates was thus obtained. He was asked, when he came to his own name, to rate himself as he thought his classmates felt about him. The split half reliability was found and corrected using the Spearman Brown formula. This was done for two classes (N=62) and reliabilities were averaged. Reliability was .95. Stability, fall-spring correlations, was .55. The instrument was administered by the counselor. The children's desks were arranged in a circle and each child's name was placed on the front of his or her desk to insure that all the children recognized one another's names.

The instrument used to measure school attitude was a School Attitude Questionnaire (Appendix F). It was developed for the study based on an instrument by Fox (1966). A reliability check, test-retest, on a second grade class, indicated a reliability of .93. The instrument was administered by the counselor. Each item in the instrument was read aloud to the group by the counselor.

Analysis of Data

SELF CONCEPT: The self-concept instrument had two parts: the real-self and the ideal self. A nine point scale was used on the five ratings with nine as the high score and one as the low score. The real-self score was subtracted from the ideal-self score on both pre and post tests. Then the post-test was subtracted from the pre-test score. The groups scores were separated into subgroups according to sex of the child and the differences examined by means of analysis of variance. There appeared to be no significance based on sex, so the scores were combined and became a group entity. The differences between pre and post-test means were calculated for each Experimental Group and The Control Group in order to determine the amount of change. The *t*-test was then used to measure the significance of the difference in the amount of change between Experimental and Control Groups, using the following formula:

$$t = \frac{MD_1 - MD_2}{X_{SE}(1/n_1 + 1/n_2)}$$

SCHOOL ATTITUDE: The scores for each group were divided according to sex and a two way analysis of variance was run to test the differences. Since no significant difference appeared, it was decided to combine the scores. The difference between pre- and post-test means were calculated for each Experimental and Control Group in order to determine the amount of change. Then the *t*-test was used to measure the significance of the difference in the amount of change between Experimental and Control Groups using the above formula.

SOCIOGRAM: Each test was scored for liking for all, liking for same sex, and liking for opposite sex. A five point scale ranging from five representing "Would like to have him as one of my best friends," to one "Dislike him" was used to score the tests. A two way analysis of variance was run on the three sets of scores in order to test differences by sex and by groups.

The results of the data are reported in the next section and discussed later.

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

In this section the results of the statistical analysis of data collected in this study are reported.

Self-Concept

Null hypothese tested and results:

H_1: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group I (E_1) in self-concept changes.

$$H_1 : E_1 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 2.

Table 2

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group I and Control Group

MDE_1	MDC	D	*t*
64.00	–16.72	80.72	7.72*

*significant at the .01 level.

Null $H_1 : E_1 - C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_2: The use of Treatment 2, the Human Development Program for fifty sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in self-concept changes.

$$H_2 : E_2 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 3.

Table 3

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group II and Control Group

MDE_2	MDC	D	*t*
80.68	–16.72	97.40	9.29*

*significant at the .01 level.

Null $H_2 : E_2 - C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_3: The use of Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group 3 (E_3) in self-concept changes.

$$H_3 : E_3 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 4.

Table 4

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group III and Control Group

MDE_3	MDC	D	t
52.80	–16.72	69.52	6.63*

*significant at the .01 level.

Null $H_3 : E_3 - C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_4: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, and Treatment 2, Human Development Program for fifty sessions, produced no difference in Experimental Group 1 (E_1) and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in self-concept changes.

$$H_4 : E_2 - E_1 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 5.

Table 5

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group I and Experimental Group II

MDE_2	MDE_1	D	t
80.68	64.00	16.68	1.56

$H_4 : E_2 - E_1 = 0$ cannot be rejected.

H_5: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, and Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference between Experimental Group 1 (E_1) and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in self-concept changes.

$$H_5 : E_1 - E_3 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 6.

Table 6

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group I and Experimental Group III

MDE_1	MDE_3	D	t
64.00	52.80	11.20	1.07

$H_5 : E_1 - E_3 = 0$ cannot be rejected.

H_6: The use of Treatment 2, Human Development Program for fifty sessions, and Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference in Experimental Group 2 (E_2) and Experimental Group 3 (E_3) in self-concept changes.

$$H_6 : E_2 - E_3 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 7.

Table 7

Differences in Gains in Self-Concept Between Experimental Group II and Experimental Group III

$^{MD}E_2$	$^{MD}E_3$	D	t
80.68	52.80	27.88	2.63*

*significant at the .01 level.

$H_6: E_2 - E_3 = 0$ can be rejected.

School Attitude

Null hypotheses tested and results:

H_7: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group 1 (E_1) in school attitudes changes.

$$H_7: E_1 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 8.

Table 8

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group I and Control Group

$^{MD}E_1$	^{MD}C	D	t
8.52	–6.14	14.66	7.76*

*significant at the .01 level.

$H_7: E_1 - C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_8: The use of Treatment 2, Human Development Program for fifty sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in school attitude changes.

$$H_8: E_2 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 9.

Table 9

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group II and Control Group

$^{MD}E_2$	^{MD}C	D	t
8.52	–6.14	17.61	9.22*

*significant at the .01 level.

$H_8: E_2 - C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_9: The use of Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference between the Control Group and Experimental Group 3 (E_3) in school attitude changes.

$$H_9: E_3 - C = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 10.

Table 10

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group III and Control Group

MDE_3	MDC	D	t
5.44	–6.14	11.58	6.16*

*significant at the .01 level.

$H_9: E_3 — C = 0$ can be rejected.

H_{10}: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, and Treatment 2, Human Development Program for fifty sessions, produced no difference in Experimental Group 1 (E_1) and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in school attitude changes.

$$H_{10}: E_1 — E_2 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 11.

Table 11

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group I and Experimental Group II

MDE_2	MDE_1	D	t
11.47	8.52	2.95	1.54

$H_{10}: E_2 — E_1 = 0$ cannot be rejected.

H_{11}: The use of Treatment 1, Developmental Guidance Experiences for fifty sessions, and Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference between Experimental Group 1 (E_1) and Experimental Group 2 (E_2) in school attitude changes.

$$H_{11}: E_1 — E_3 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 12.

Table 12

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group I and Experimental Group III

MDE_1	MDE_3	D	t
8.52	5.44	3.06	1.63

$H_{11}: E_1 — E_3 = 0$ cannot be rejected.

H_{12}: The use of Treatment 2, Human Development Program for fifty sessions, and Treatment 3, Developmental Guidance Experiences for twenty-five sessions, produced no difference in Experimental Group 2 (E_2) and Experimental Group 3 (E_3) in school attitude changes.

$$H_{12}: E_2 — E_3 = 0$$

The results of this test are in Table 13.

Table 13

Differences in Gain in School Attitude Between Experimental Group II and Experimental Group III

${}^{MD}E_2$	${}^{MD}E_3$	D	t
11.47	5.44	6.03	3.19*

*significant at the .01 level.

$H_{12}: E_2 — E_3 = 0$ can be rejected.

Sociogram

Null hypotheses tested and results:

H_{13}: The use of the four treatments produced no differences in change among the four groups for either sex in liking for boys.

Table 14

Analysis of Variance of Changes Among Groups and Between Sexes in Liking for Boys

SOURCE	df	ss	ms	f
SEX	1.00	22886.21	22886.21	10.82*
TREATMENT GROUP	3.00	64918.99	21639.66	10.23*
SEX X TREATMENT	3.00	896.63	298.88	0.14
ERROR	108.00	228449.81	2115.28	

*significant at the .01 level.

H_{13} can be rejected.

H_{14}: The use of the four treatments produced no difference in change among the four groups for either sex in liking for girls.

Table 15

Analysis of Variance of Changes Among Groups and Between Sexes in Liking for Girls

SOURCE	df	ss	ms	f
SEX	1.00	83518.24	83518.24	28.47*
TREATMENT GROUP	3.00	102897.96	34299.32	11.69*
SEX X TREATMENT	3.00	24819.34	8273.11	2.82
ERROR	108.00	316876.21	2934.04	

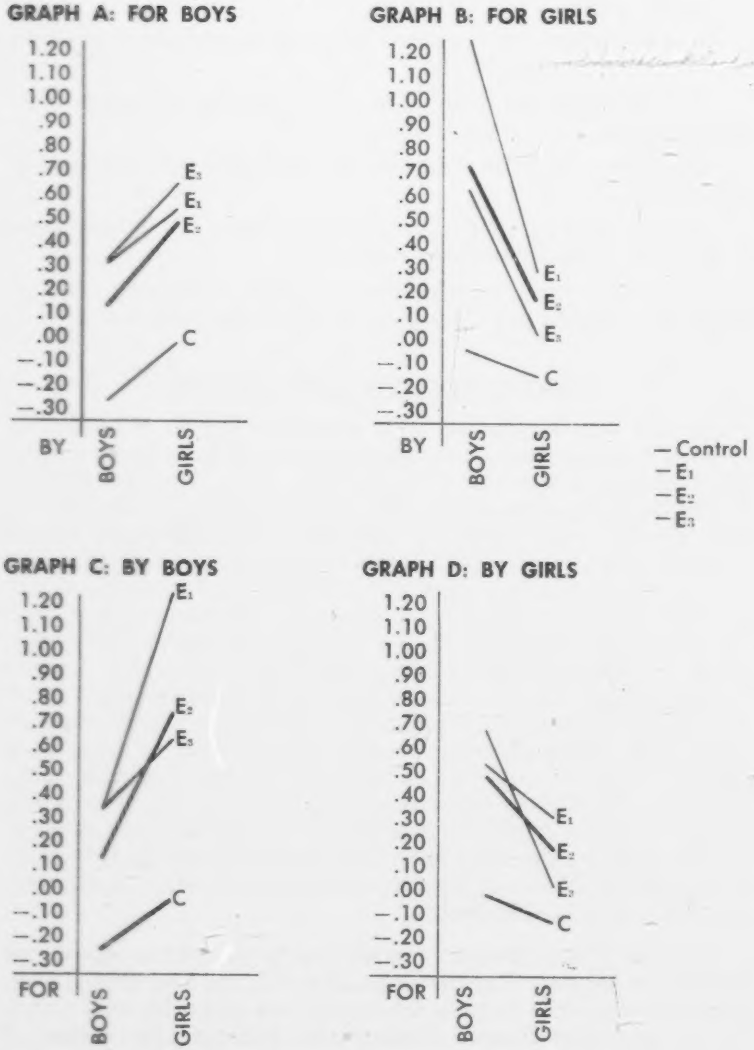
*significant at the .01 level.

H_{14} can be rejected.

The following graphs indicate relationships among the mean change scores on the sociometric instrument.

Table 16

Relationships Among Mean Change Scores of Liking for and by Boys and Girls



Graphs A and B have the f scores listed in Table 4.13 and 4.14. Graph C combines the "liking by boys for boys" and "liking by boys for girls". Graph D combines "liking by girls for boys" and "liking by girls for girls".

Graphs A, B, C, and D show:

(1) All experimental groups increased significantly in liking for other students in general.

(2) Experimental Group I increased more in liking for other students than Experimental Group II or III.

(3) There was little difference between Experimental Groups II and III.

(4) All groups, Control and Experimental, increased more in liking for opposite sex than own sex.

(5) In all Experimental Groups, boys increased more in liking for opposite sex than girls in liking for opposite sex.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

As the school assumes more responsibility in the affective areas of development, it is important to investigate methods that will facilitate positive changes in these areas. Two methods of developmental guidance with the stated purpose of facilitating such changes were tested in this study. These methods were a program of Developmental Guidance Experiences (Appendix B and C) and the Human Development Program (Appendix D and E). The specific affective areas involved were self-concept, peer relations, and school attitudes. After fifty sessions in two second grade classrooms using the two methods and twenty-five sessions in a third second grade classroom using the Developmental Guidance Experiences method, changes in self-concept, peer relationships, and school attitude were compared with changes in a control group. The analysis of this data showed that each of the Experimental Groups improved significantly in all three areas, compared to the Control Group. It can be concluded that developmental guidance by either of the two methods used tends to facilitate positive change in the affective areas of self-concept, peer relations and school attitudes.

A closer look at the data reveals that there were no significant differences between Experimental Group I, the long term Developmental Guidance Experience group, and Experimental Group II, the long term Human Development Program, in changes of self-concept, school attitudes or peer relations. Both groups improved significantly. It can be concluded that the Human Development Program and Developmental Guidance Experiences are essentially equally effective in improving self-concept, school attitudes and peer relations.

In comparing Experimental Group 3, the twenty-five session, Developmental Guidance Experience group, with the two fifty session groups it was found that (1) Experimental Group 2 was significantly higher than Experimental Group 3 in changes in self-concept, (2) Experimental Group 2 had a significantly greater increase in changes of school attitudes than Experimental Group 3, and (3) from the actual mean scores, a trend that Experimental Group 1 had a greater increase in changes in peer relations than Experimental Group 3 was apparent but not significant. In general, the more exposure a group had to developmental guidance the greater was the change.

The results of the changes on the sociogram indicate that boys showed greater increases in liking for girls in all Experimental Groups than girls showed increases in liking for boys. This is an interesting trend at an age where usually boys' "dislike" for girls is increasing as it did in the control group.

Relation to Research

In relating the findings of this study to other studies there is a trend toward agreement of certain ideas. The Ojemann (1746, 1956), Stobetz (1955) and Martin (1959) studies shared similar aims and methods with developmental guidance. Each of these studies also indicated positive change. The indications that self-concept can be changed in this age range and that self-concept can be enhanced through accepting others, self introspection, self description, dramatization, and peer evaluation are reinforced by the findings of this study. The evidence cited earlier that sociometric status can be improved through counseling, guidance activities and model reinforcement groups was reaffirmed by this study as each of these techniques were used in this study.

Implications of Study

Counselors, teachers, and educators are given encouragement to become involved in developmental guidance activities. When used in a long term daily program not just on a twice a month, ten minutes a session, "I'm not sure it will work" basis, developmental guidance can work and it can be beneficial to children.

The great need for finding a method which would be beneficial to children in the affective areas of development was analyzed. Now a method appears to have been found. Developmental guidance did aid children. Both the Human Development Program and the Developmental Guidance Experiences significantly changed children's self-concept, peer relations, and attitudes toward school.

It must be stressed that both programs in developmental guidance were long term, fifty session, daily programs. The counselor was in each classroom at least twenty minutes every school day. Thus there was opportunity to have a continuous sequential program in each classroom.

In the long term groups, the increase in self-concept and school attitude was greater than in the short term, twenty-five session, group. The more exposure to developmental guidance the children had, the greater was the change. In the use of a developmental guidance program, a long term daily program appears to be most effective.

Suggestions for Future Research

(1) From the actual mean scores, it appeared that Experimental Group 2 improved more than Experimental Group 1 in self-concept and school attitude, and that Experimental Group 1 improved more in peer relationships. In this sample the differences were not significant, but it may be worth examining this seeming trend in further studies.

(2) In future studies, to avoid possible effects on test results, it is recommended that someone other than the person or persons involved in the developmental guidance in the classroom administer the instruments.

(3) When giving the self-concept instrument to young children it is suggested that two colors of paper be used, for example, blue for real-self and yellow for the ideal-self, and that the two parts be given together as one.

(4) Since Carlton, Martin, and Mann found correlations between academic achievement and positive affective changes, this relationship might be further explored in future research.

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APPENDIX A

Havighurst's Developmental Tasks

According to Havighurst (1948)

> A developmental task is a task which arises at about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by society, and difficulty with later tasks.

The developmental tasks of middle childhood, according to Havighurst (1948) follow:

(1) Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.

(2) Building wholesome attitudes toward one-self as a growing organism.

(3) Learning to get along with age-mates.

(4) Learning an appropriate sex role.

(5) Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.

(6) Developing concepts necessary for everyday.

(7) Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.

(8) Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

APPENDIX B

Developmental Guidance Experiences

Included in the following section are summaries of the types of experiences that were shared in Experimental Groups 1 and 3. The areas overlapped and discussions intertwined so it is difficult to classify the experiences precisely.

Before presenting this summary of experiences it should be stated that an open atmosphere, a sense of each child's worth and importance as an individual, and a great deal of feedback from peers and the counselor are an asset to the success of any Developmental Guidance Experience.

In Experimental Group 3 the experiences centered mainly around Developmental Tasks Nos. 3 and 8. However, units from other Developmental areas were used.

For the convenience of both reader and researcher, the Developmental Guidance Experience will hereafter be referred to as DGE.

Summaries of Experience

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK I: Learning physical skills necssary for ordinary games.

An example of types of experiences under this area is Developmental Guidance Experience 1 (Appendix C). This experience deals with a story of two teams playing hockey. While the story was being told, the children were involved in analyzing why one player did better than another, what skills were necessary to play and how it feels to play, win, and lose. During the story, the discussion often overlapped Developmental Task VIII (developing conscience, morality and a scale of values). Upon completion of the story, the children related other games and experiences they had had and told of skills needed to do well in various sports.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK II: Building wholesome attitudes towards oneself as a growing organism.

We dealt with feelings a great deal — discussed what a feeling was, played "Who Feels" (DGE No. 2), shared feelings with colors, and pantomimed various feelings. We tried to help each child explore and discover his feelings and then worked into Developmental Task III (Getting along with age mates) and IV (Learning appropriate sex role) by seeking to understand how others felt and why.

We also spent some time discussing talents. Each child shared one or two pictures he had drawn demonstrating one of his talents.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK III: Getting along with age mates.

We talked about friends; for example, what is a friend? What kind of things does a friend do for his friend? Why do you like your friends? How could you be a better friend? We made a list of qualities of a friend and posted it in the room. Then we played the secret friend game (DGE No. 3).

As mentioned previously we shared feelings and tried to understand other's feelings and behaviors. We illustrated how our behavior affects others through a behavior circle in which each persons behavior effects another person. We attempted to understand causes of various types of behavior (i.e. DGE No. 4 and a film strip concerning a misbehaving boy). We analyzed how we could often tell how someone feels by the way he acts and looks, and role played some incongrueties in expressions, behaviors and words.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK IV: Learning an appropriate sex role.

Our experience in this area centered around the varying interests of boys and girls to determine why sometimes they are interested in the same things and sometimes they are not. We created through games and discussions more understanding of boys by girls and girls by boys. We also did some dramatizing of stereotypes to demonstrate that not all girls or all boys are interested in the same types of things.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK V: Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing and calculating.

In this area, we played games that emphasized the importance of listening (i.e. DGE No. 5). In several different DGE's the children were asked to write something, read something or to tell the rest of the class something. In this way some of the concepts in this area were covered.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK VI: Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.

Many types of activities were covered that fall in this task area. One of these was doing for others. An example of the experiences involving doing for others was DGE No. 6. An important part of this DGE was the follow up of finding out what each child had done for someone else. We also shared things that children had seen other children doing for people and things other children had done for them.

Another concept was recognizing the good in others. This tied in with the follow up of doing for others. We identified good in others through dramatizations and discussions; and children reported 'good' behaviors of themselves and other children.

Another concept was openness in life. To demonstrate this, DGE No. 7 was used. Other concepts were also covered.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK VII: Developing conscience, morality and a scale of values.

Truthfulness, anger, stealing and value for others were among the concepts covered in this area. Two examples are DGE 8 and DGE 9. We shared several stories and pict-o-stories (see DGE No. I) concerning concepts in this area.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK VIII: Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

To examine our attitudes toward school we discussed ways in which school was and was not important in everyday activities. We pantomimed various occupations and identified what had been done in school that day which would help in those occupations.

Example of the ways in which we examined our attitudes toward racial equality are DGE Nos. 10 and 11.

APPENDIX C

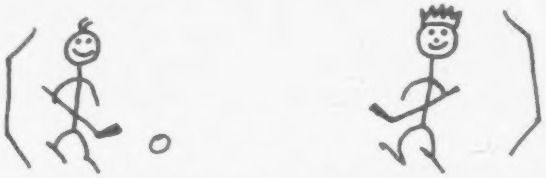
Examples of Experiences

Developmental Task No. 1: Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.

Specific Task: Identifying the skills necessary for a game and discussing how to develop these skills.

Suggested Procedure: Pict-o-story is told by drawing simple stick figures on the board while relating the story. These stories are most effective when the children are involved in telling the story. Often stories change as they are told.

This is a beginning of a story with a few pictures to illustrate. This is Peter with his skates on. His team is going to play Bill's team in hockey — at this point involve the children in talking about Pete and Bill, how to skate, how to play hockey, what skills it takes to play, which player is the better player, etc.



The Hockey Field

(Children love to watch the stick figures being drawn and changed). Many kinds of things can happen. For example, Mary falls down a lot — how can Mary be a better skater? Ted trips Joe — was it an accident? What happens now? This game ended with the goalie falling down and the winning point being scored over him. Feelings about winning and losing can be discussed.

Developmental Task No. 2: Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.

Specific Task: To express one's feelings and preferences, to find a common sense of identity and a sense of importance.

Suggested Procedure: Play the game "Who feels . . . ?"

1. Choose a child as the questioner. The child can add anything to the "Who feels . . . ?" that he wants. For example, "Who

feels happy when eating ice cream?" Children can take turns as the questioner.

2. The members of the class can stand by their desk of any place you decide for them. When a child likes something he raises and waves his hands. When he dislikes something, he will get down on the floor.

Developmental Task No. 3: Learning to get along with age mates.

Specific task: Being friendly to others.

Grade Level: 2-6*

Procedure: Each child will draw the name of another child in the room. During the next two weeks he will be this person's "secret friend". He will find some act of kindness or friendliness to do each day for his "friend". At the end of a two week period children will take turns identifying who they think was their "secret friend" and tell what behavior leads them to think this.

Success of the program can in part be measured by the readiness of children to share their experiences and react to the program.

An interesting side effect to watch for is the number of "wrong guesses". This program should not only make the "secret friends" more ready to help others but should also alert all the children to be more aware of small kindnesses done to them in an incidental fashion. The guru says, "Blessed is the program in which nobody can find the secret friend because everybody is friendly."

Post try-out comments:

Works very well into the valentine season. Read or tell the legends of St. Valentine and use heart cutouts for the names.

In some grades make a good opening for discussions on getting along with, and being nice to, persons of the opposite sex. "Children came to the conclusion that they should see each other as human beings and that it should be as easy to do things for those of opposite sex as for own."

Warning: Some children have trouble realizing that this works best if the names are kept secret.

Also: In one class the kids had the idea that the way to be a friend was to give their friend small gifts. Emphasize *doing* and *being* rather than giving.

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*Ed. Note:

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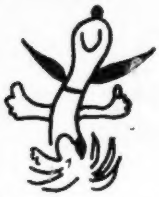
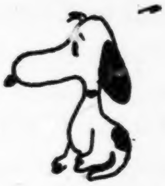
Developmental Task No. 4: Getting along with peers.

Specific Task: Understand cause of behavior — you can't always understand the reason from the behavior.

Materials:

Drawings of a happy, excited dog and a dejected dog.





Explain that you gave your dog a food pellet and he reacted like this (show happy dog). Discuss reason why . . .

Say you gave your dog another food pellet and he reacted thus (show dejected dog). Discuss why . . .

Find reasons for other behaviors such as:

a boy smiling at a friend

a girl saying she won't go to a birthday party

a boy saying he doesn't want another boy to go sledding with him

a girl always giggling in class

Maybe the kids can give some behavior.

*Developmental Task No. 5: Learning appropriate skills and attitudes toward the three R's. (Grades 1-3)**

Specific task: Following directions.

Suggested procedure: The leader shall give each child a piece of paper and then read the following list to them.

1. Listen to me read the entire sheet before you do anything I say.
2. Put your name in the upper left-hand corner.
3. Put four circles in the upper right-hand corner of the sheet.
4. Stand up and count to ten out loud.
5. Put three one's under your name.

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*For grades 4-6 modify the procedure by giving each student a copy of the directions rather than reading it to them.

6. Stand and sing the first verse of "Row, Row, Row, Your Boat."
7. Walk around your desk three times.
8. Draw a border around this paper.
9. Smile at the teacher.
10. If you followed directions you should not have done anything but listened to me read.

Possible Discussion Questions:

1. Why is it important to follow directions?
2. What does it mean to think for yourself?

Possible Follow-up Activity:

To illustrate the importance of following directions, have the children do a paper folding exercise such as; George Washington hat, airplane, or boat.

Developmental Task No. 6: Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.

Level: Primary

Specific Objective: Doing for others and recognizing when others do for us.

Suggested Procedures:

Ask for volunteers or choose a few children. Ask them (in secret) to role play a situation where one of them does something for the others. It is best to have the children think up their own thing to do but if they have trouble have some suggestions ready. Ideas for role playing might be: One child drops a book and another picks it up for him; One child is sitting all alone while the others play and one of the playing children ask the lonely child to join them; Mother is baking a cake and an older child takes care of the baby; or the teacher is erasing the board and a child offers to help. Have the other children try to figure out what is going on in the dramatization and why. Attempt to center questions around how it feels when someone helps someone else and to describe various reasons why people help other people and how each child can help other people.

This can be ended with having each child try to help someone else and tell about it the next session.

Developmental Task No. 7: Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.

Grade: 1, 2, 3

Specific Objective: To help the child to develop an *Openness* in his everyday living.

Suggested Procedures:

Show a series of pictures of children exhibiting various emotions. As you show each picture have a discussion about how the children in the pictures seem to feel. Then ask, have you ever felt that way? Tell us about it. Act out some of the situations that the class talks about.

Point out that it feels good to tell how we feel and it helps other people to know how we feel.

Comments: Excellent

Developmental Task No. 8: Developing conscience, morality and a scale of values.

Specific Task: To learn to value and respect others as well as themselves.

Procedure:

1. Have the children stand together in one group. Offer five balloons to anyone who wants them.
2. Discuss questions such as the following:
   A. What did you do to get a balloon?
   B. Why did you think you needed a balloon?
   C. Why didn't you let someone else get it?
   D. Do we really value people more than some thing that we want?
   E. Can you think of other times when things are more important than people to us?
3. Ask those with the balloons what they would like to do with them. Discuss how they feel.
4. Summarize with the group what the point was that we were trying to become aware of.

Developmental Task No. 9: Developing Conscience, Morality and a Scale of Values.

Specific Task: Becoming aware of other's feelings concerning "borrowing" or stealing things.

Procedure:

Ask a couple of children to role play. Explain (in the hall) that one of them has 'lost' something and thinks that another member of the class has taken it. The two children are to discover the object missing and carry on a conversation about what happened to it.

Have everyone think of a time when something that belonged to him has been missing (or maybe still is) and he thought he knew that someone had taken it (maybe even whom). Have children jot down feelings they had toward that person . . . what they did . . .

Discuss — either pass papers around, have each child keep his own or collect and read.

Developmental Task No. 10: Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

Specific Task: The absurdness of prejudice.

Grades: K-2

Materials: Book, *The Sneetches* by Dr. Seuss.

Procedure: Read and show the pictures of the story about the Sneetches. (You might want to pre-record the story so you can spend your time showing the pictures to the children.) The story tells about how the star-belly sneetches and the plain-belly sneetches and what happens when Sylvester McMonkey McBean comes to fix their troubles.

Developmental Task No. 11: Developing attitudes toward scoial groups and institutions.

Sub-task: To create an awareness of minority groups and their special needs.

Age Group: 3-6

Procedure: Ask children what they would think if they woke up one morning and everyone was green. How would other people react to you if you were green.

Allow time for discussion. When discussion lags ask:

1. If a scientist developed a limited number of pills which turned people back to their original color, offered one to you, would you take it? Why?
2. You were the only green person
   - a. how would people react to you?
   - b. how would you feel because of these people's reaction?
   - c. how would you act because of these feelings?
3. Everyone is green — follow somewhat same questions as in No. 1.
4. What causes all the trouble? Stress that person is still human.

APPENDIX D

General Purposes of the Human Development Program

(Bessell, Theory 1967)

1. The principal reason for devising a human development program is to place in the hands of those classroom teachers who have either special competence or special training, an easily administered methods manual, which can be used to promote personal effectiveness in children.

2. The overall program consists of a series of teacher's guides beginning at either age four or five and going on up through all of the grades to Junior High School with each age level offering successively advanced material. At any grade level after the first there is sufficient flexibility in age range challenge so that the guides may be used in direct sequence, once the program is begun.

3. Can there be any disagreement with our nation's conviction that human beings are our most valuable resource? Our children, as an undeveloped resource, therefore merit every possible attention if their potential talents and personal satisfactions are to be realized to the fullest.

4. Self-realization does not occur by chance. Academic realization which culminates in meaningful work performance results from carefully planned and administered curricula sequences. But research has shown that far more often people lose their jobs because of personal ineffectiveness than because of technical incompetence. It would seem wise, therefore, to provide a program to assure personal effectiveness to go along with the usual academic (or technical) education. And this should be supplied as a carefully planned program of learning experiences.

5. Personal effectiveness at each grade level is defined as a set of principles. At the first level, lesson sessions are prepared which provide developmental opportunity in three areas which have been demonstrated to be of critical significance in the acquisition of patterns of personal effectiveness. These are Communication (the aware perception, reception and transmission of one's own and other people's feelings, thoughts and behavior), Mastery (capability coupled with self-confidence), and Social Interaction (a practical comprehension of what leads to social approval or disapproval).

6. The program is so designed that it is assured that each child will markedly and measurably increase his awareness of himself and of others. Tasks of graduated difficulty are presented which offer an interesting challenge but also assure mas-

tery of skills. While the mastery ingrains a feeling of capability the socially reinforcing remarks of the teacher assure a growing sense of self-confidence. Presentation of structured social interactions promotes the acquisition in each child of a first-hand appreciation of the causes and effects in interpersonal behavior. These children will inevitably be more effective in all spheres of their lives because each one has had development of those characteristics which demark the effective person from the ineffective one. These children should have a deep personal comprehension of themselves and of the meaning and purpose of their activities. They will naturally and properly come to see themselves as effective. And with this self-concept they will be highly motivated and optimistic in facing new challenges as well as being more effective in actually coping with those challenges.

7. Personal happiness, social usefulness and technical effectiveness tend to go together. This program offers a special set of methods to further those personal objectives which would be the appropriate companions of technical accomplishment.

8. The next guide (Level 3, for the First Grade) offers content and methods in further human development in three basic areas (Self Understanding, Responsible Competence, and Social Interaction). These are Self-Worth (the effective child values himself), Things I Can Do (the effective child is capable and experiences himself as being capable), and Liking and Being Liked (the effective child knows why people like each other).

9. Further guides offer content and method in other and more advanced areas within the basic themes.

10. The timeliness of this program is attested to by the awareness of the general population of the relationship between the lack of true developmental personality training for effective living and the unsatisfactory results they see in the lives of ineffective individuals.

11. It might be hoped that some of the social consequences of this curriculum sequence will be a reduction of prejudice and other group tensions and their replacement by a spirit of mutually enhancing creativity.

APPENDIX E

Examples of Human Development Program
(Bessell, 1969)

Units 3 and 6

SOCIAL INTERACTION

Thirteenth Week: *Understanding Approval-Giving Behavior*

Thirty-first Week: Weekly Overview

Monday: "What did someone do that you liked?" Each child is permitted to volunteer to tell a story about something that someone did that was nice or made him feel good. Emphasis is placed upon the connection between someone's behavior and the way the child liked it or approved of what that person did because it made him feel good. Children learn that they can and do give approval.

Tuesday: "What did someone do that you liked?"

Wednesday: "What did someone do that you liked?"

Thursday: "What did your teacher do that you liked?"

Friday: "What did a child in the group do that you liked?"

Supplementary Games

Thirteenth Week: *Understanding Approval-Giving Behavior*

Thirty-first Week:

Monday: "What did someone do that you liked?" Teacher tells children that many people do things that make her feel good. When someone does something that makes her feel good then she says that it is something that she likes. Teacher then gives some more examples until the children understand the concept. Each child is then encouraged to tell a "story" in which someone did something that he liked.

Teacher should make the usual commentary on how people's behavior affects other people's feelings and specifically refer to the incident that each child just reported. *Teacher states that the child, naming him, liked or approved of what someone had done for him to make him have that good feeling.*

Allow each child to contribute his story fully, and the timing should be as he feels most spontaneous. If, however, it would seem that the session might end before *every* child should have a chance, then teacher should encourage specifically each child who may be reticent, and with these children be especially careful to praise them for using their courage ("being so brave") as to tell such a difficult story. Seek maximum expression but, to avoid embarrassment, emphasize the positive by focusing on what has been contributed. In the early sessions of this unit, it may at times be necessary to help the children a little to express themselves so that the *focus can be upon the matter of approval.*

APPENDIX F

Attitude Toward School

Your Name: ________________________ Date ____________

Teacher's Name: ________________________

MULTIPLE-CHOICE SENTENCE COMPLETIONS

On this form are some sentences that are started but not finshed. *Below each sentence that has been started are some different ways that it might be finished.* You are to put an X in front of the *one* that makes the sentence most true for you. *There are no right or wrong answers.* The way you feel about things is what counts.

Let's try an example. Suppose the sentence reads this way:

Today I want to

______ play ball

______ get a good grade

__X__ go to a movie

Suppose that what you want most today, of the three choices listed, is to go to a movie. To show that this is your choice, you would put an X on the line in front of the words *go to a movie*, as has been done in the example.

Are there any questions?

Start with the first sentence below and put an X in front of the *one* ending that makes the sentence most nearly true for you. Do every one. There are no right or wrong answers. This is not a test. What is right for you would not necessarily be right for somebody else. Hand in your paper as soon as you have finished. Remember complete each sentence with only one X; that is, put an X only in front of the one ending that comes closest to the way you really feel.

1. My schoolwork

_____ is a lot of fun

_____ is sometimes fun

_____ isn't much fun

_____ is not fun at all

2. Learning from books is

_____ very interesting

_____ interesting sometimes

_____ sometimes dull

_____ very dull and boring

3. Studying is

_____ a lot of fun

_____ sometimes fun

_____ not much fun

_____ not fun at all

4. The best thing about this school is

_____ the kids in it

_____ the things we learn

_____ recess

_____ the teachers

_____ the fun we have in class

5. My schoolwork is
______ very hard
______ sort of hard
______ sort of easy
______ very easy for me

6. In class, working with others is
______ the best way for me to learn
______ sometimes good, sometimes not
______ not a very good way to learn
______ not at all a good way to learn

7. My schoolwork is
______ very interesting
______ interesting sometimes
______ sometimes dull
______ very dull and boring

8. Learning from books is
______ a good way to learn
______ good, but I can learn more in other ways
______ not a very good way to learn
______ not at all a good way to learn

9. Studying is
______ very dull and boring
______ sometimes dull
______ interesting sometimes
______ very interesting

10. The worst thing about this school is
______ the kids in it
______ the things we have to study
______ the teachers
______ that we almost never have fun
______ that we have to stay in school too long

11. If I should fail in school,
______ I'd try to do better
______ I'd wish I had studied more
______ I'd feel ashamed
______ I'd quit school

12. School grades make me feel
______ very sad
______ a little sad
______ a little happy
______ very happy

13. In school I have
______ lots of friends
______ some friends
______ very few friends
______ hardly any friends

14. Homework is
_____ very interesting
_____ interesting sometimes
_____ sometimes dull
_____ very dull and boring

15. When I talk about school, my mother
_____ doesn't listen
_____ sometimes listens
_____ listens most of the time
_____ is very interested

16. I learn best when
_____ the teacher helps me
_____ another pupil helps me
_____ someone in my family helps me
_____ I can work it out for myself

17. Teachers in this school are
_____ very friendly
_____ somewhat friendly
_____ not too friendly
_____ not friendly at all

18. If I should fail in school,
_____ I'd be mad at the teacher
_____ I'd be mad at myself
_____ I'd say it was tough luck
_____ it wouldn't be my fault

19. About school
_____ worry a lot
_____ worry a little
_____ don't worry much
_____ don't worry at all

20. Studying is
_____ very helpful to me
_____ helpful if there is not too much
_____ not very helpful for me
_____ a waste of time for me

21. I am happiest when
_____ I'm with a friend
_____ I'm with my family
_____ I'm alone
_____ I'm in school

22. Homework is
_____ a waste of time
_____ not very helpful for me
_____ helpful if there is not too much
_____ very helpful to me

23. When I talk about school, my father
_____ is very interested
_____ listens most of the time
_____ sometimes listens
_____ doesn't listen

24. In class, working by myself is
_____ the best way for me to learn
_____ sometimes good, sometimes not
_____ not as good as working with a group
_____ a waste of time

25. This school
_____ is my idea of a good school
_____ is O.K. but it could be better
_____ isn't very good
_____ is pretty bad — I don't like it

SCORING FOR SCHOOL ATTITUDE INSTRUMENT

The weight of each sentence ending response under each item is listed below. The scores are in the order of the sentence endings.

1. 4,3,2,1
2. 4,3,2,1
3. 4,3,2,1
4. 2,4,0,3,1
5. 1,2,3,4
6. 4,3,2,1
7. 4,3,2,1
8. 4,3,2,1
9. 1,2,3,4
10. 2,0,1,3,4
11. 4,3,2,1
12. 1,2,3,4
13. 4,3,2,1
14. 4,3,2,1
15. 1,2,3,4
16. 4,3,1,2
17. 4,3,2,1
18. 3,4,1,2
19. 1,2,3,4
20. 4,3,2,1
21. 3,2,1,4
22. 1,2,3,4
23. 4,3,2,1
24. 4,2,3,1
25. 4,3,2,1

APPENDIX G

Social Distance Scale

NAME____

SCHOOL________________________ TEACHER______________

We don't like all of our friends in the same way. Some we like more than others. There may be some people we don't like at all. Beside each name listed, put a check in the space under the statement which most nearly describes your feelings about the person. When you come to your own name, check the space which describes how you think most of the boys and girls feel about you. Use "her" for "him" when checking a girl's name.

Pupil's Name	Would like to have him as one of my best friends ☺	Would like to have him in my group but not as a close friend ☺	Would like to be with him once in a while but not often nor for a long time. 😐	I would rather not have anything to do with him. 😐	Dislike him. ☹

APPENDIX H

Real Self-Concept

Name______________________________ School_____________________

Grade__________ Boy__________ Girl__________ Age__________

Directions: Some boys and girls are good at certain things. Other boys and girls are better at doing other types of things. Here is a list of different kinds of things that boys and girls do. Read each one and then decide how you rate as compared to other boys and girls of your age. Mark an X in one of the boxes to show your answer.

COMPARED WITH OTHER BOYS AND GIRLS MY AGE, HOW DO I RATE NOW?	One of the best	Better than most	About average	Only so-so	Not very good
1. Playing outdoor games after school.					
2. Learning things rapidly.					
3. Getting along well with boys.					
4. Getting along well with girls.					
5. Being attractive, good-looking.					
6. Getting along well with teachers.					
7. Getting my school work in on time, and not getting behind.					
8. Being sensitive to what other people are feeling.					
9. Being comical or humorous.					
10. Doing science projects.					
11. Being good at sports.					
12. Remembering what I've learned.					
13. Controlling my temper with boys.					
14. Controlling my temper with girls.					
15. Being a good size and build for my age.					
16. Controlling my temper with teachers.					
17. Getting assignments straight the first time.					
18. Being willing to help others.					
19. Being confident, not shy or timid.					
20. Doing art work.					
21. Being good at things that require physical skill.					
22. Being a good student.					
23. Making friends easily, with boys.					

COMPARED WITH OTHER BOYS AND GIRLS MY AGE, HOW DO I RATE NOW?	One of the best	Better than most	About average	Only so-so	Not very good
24. Making friends easily, with girls.					
25. Being neat and clean in appearance.					
26. Being able to take orders from teachers without resenting it.					
27. Being able to concentrate.					
28. Being courteous, having good manners.					
29. Getting a lot of fun out of life.					
30. Doing arithmetic work.					
31. Being built for sports.					
32. Being smart.					
33. Being a leader—the one to get things started, with boys.					
34. Being a leader—the one to get things started, with girls.					
35. Being not too skinny, not too fat.					
36. Paying attention to teachers, not closing my ears to them.					
37. Studying hard, not wasting my time.					
38. Being willing for others to have their way sometimes.					
39. Not expecting everything I do to be perfect.					
40. Getting good grades in school.					
41. Being good at physical education.					
42. Having new, original ideas.					
43. Having plenty of friends, among the boys.					
44. Having plenty of friends, among the girls.					
45. Being not too tall, not too short.					
46. Being able to talk to teachers easily.					
47. Going ahead with school work on my own.					
48. Making other people feel at ease.					
49. Having lots of pep and energy.					
50. Doing social studies projects.					

Ideal Self-Concept

Name________________________________ School________________________

Grade______________ Boy_____________ Girl_____________ Age____________

Directions: Some boys and girls are good at certain things. Other boys and girls are better at doing other types of things. Here is a list of different kinds of things that boys and girls do. Read each one and then decide how you *would like to be* as compared to other boys and girls of your age. Mark an X in one of the boxes to show your answer.

COMPARED WITH OTHER BOYS AND GIRLS MY AGE, HOW WOULD I LIKE TO BE?	One of the best	Better than most	About average	Only so-so	Not very good
1. Playing outdoor games after school.					
2. Learning things rapidly.					
3. Getting along well with boys.					
4. Getting along well with girls.					
5. Being attractive, good-looking.					
6. Getting along well with teachers.					
7. Getting my school work in on time, and not getting behind.					
8. Being sensitive to what other people are feeling.					
9. Being comical or humorous.					
10. Doing science projects.					
11. Being good at sports.					
12. Remembering what I've learned.					
13. Controlling my temper with boys.					
14. Controlling my temper with girls.					
15. Being a good size and build for my age.					
16. Controlling my temper with teachers.					
17. Getting assignments straight the first time.					
18. Being willing to help others.					
19. Being confident, not shy or timid.					
20. Doing art work.					
21. Being good at things that require physical skill.					
22. Being a good student.					
23. Making friends easily, with boys.					

COMPARED WITH OTHER BOYS AND GIRLS MY AGE, HOW WOULD I LIKE TO BE?	One of the best	Better than most	About average	Only so-so	Not very good
24. Making friends easily, with girls.					
25. Being neat and clean in appearance.					
26. Being able to take orders from teachers without resenting it.					
27. Being able to concentrate.					
28. Being courteous, having good manners.					
29. Getting a lot of fun out of life.					
30. Doing arithmetic work.					
31. Being built for sports.					
32. Being smart.					
33. Being a leader—the one to get things started, with boys.					
34. Being a leader—the one to get things started, with girls.					
35. Being not too skinny, not too fat.					
36. Paying attention to teachers, not closing my ears to them.					
37. Studying hard, not wasting my time.					
38. Being willing for others to have their way sometimes.					
39. Not expecting everything I do to be perfect.					
40. Getting good grades in school.					
41. Being good at physical education.					
42. Having new, original ideas.					
43. Having plenty of friends, among the boys.					
44. Having plenty of friends, among the girls.					
45. Being not too tall, not too short.					
46. Being able to talk to teachers easily.					
47. Going ahead with school work on my own.					
48. Making other people feel at ease.					
49. Having lots of pep and energy.					
50. Doing social studies projects.					

APPENDIX I

Mean Scores of Measurements

Group	N	Self-Concept Mean Scores		
		Pre	Post	Difference
Control Group—Boys	18	53.33	74.28	–20.94
Control Group—Girls	11	37.46	47.28	– 9.82
Experimental Group 1—Boys	11	80.82	1.27	79.55
Experimnetal Group I—Girls	18	64.27	9.78	54.50
Experimental Group II—Boys	14	105.71	4.93	100.79
Experimental Group II—Girls	14	76.43	15.86	60.57
Experimental Group III—Boys	19	63.27	15.21	48.05
Experimental Group III—Girls	11	81.00	20.00	61.00

Group	N	School Attitude Mean Scores		
		Pre	Post	Difference
Control Group—Boys	18	80.11	70.44	–9.67
Control Group—Girls	11	82.36	82.00	–0.36
Experimental Group 1—Boys	11	67.55	79.27	11.73
Experimental Group I—Girls	18	77.33	83.89	6.56
Experimental Group II—Boys	14	57.36	71.43	14.07
Experimental Group II—Girls	14	72.00	80.86	8.86
Experimental Group III—Boys	19	72.53	78.68	6.16
Experimental Group III—Girls	11	80.91	85.82	4.91

Sociometric Mean Scores

		Liking for Boys			Liking for Girls		
Group	N	Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
Control Group—Boys	18	3.77	3.55	–.22	2.11	2.10	–.01
Control Group—Girls	11	2.37	2.38	.01	4.65	4.54	–.11
Experimental Group 1—Boys	11	3.86	4.19	.33	2.80	4.06	1.26
Experimental Group 1—Girls	18	2.42	2.98	.56	4.17	4.49	.32
Experimental Group 2—Boys	14	4.55	4.71	.16	2.37	3.12	.75
Experimental Group 2—Girls	14	2.92	3.42	.50	4.16	4.36	.20
Experimental Group 3—Boys	19	3.85	4.19	.34	2.54	3.19	.65
Experimental Group 3—Girls	11	2.44	3.13	.69	4.72	4.75	.03

EFFECTS OF DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE EXPERIENCES ON PEER LIKING OF FOURTH GRADE ELEMENTARY STUDENTS

Lyle A. Hammerschmidt and Marlowe Smaby*

Introduction

"Developmental psychologists can at present only speculate about the process underlying a child's development", according to Rebelsky and Dorman (1970). The primary reason for the speculation is due to the "heredity or environment" question. Hebb (1953), along with other psychologists, agreed that "development does not proceed through either environment or heredity alone, but through a continuing interaction between the organism and its environment" (Rebelsky and Dorman, 1970). Heredity and environmental experiences are viewed as both being "interdependent and interactive in their effects on development" (Holme, 1971).

One aspect of the environment which plays a very important part in each child's development is the school community (Dreikurs, 1968; Lippitt & Gold, 1959). It is in the school community that the facilitators of development (teachers, counselors, and other school specialists) try to assist each child in maximizing his own potentiality (Grams, 1966).

It appears to the senior author, as he has worked in different schools and has talked with aware parents, teachers, and students that education today is not meeting the individual needs of today's students. Students tend to be more concerned with what something means to them personally rather than whatever it is that someone might be trying to teach them. Many educators and concerned writers also do not feel that the above stated task of the schools is being accomplished (Maes, 1966; Holt, 1969). It is felt that cognitive learnings have been more strongly emphasized and not enough time has been spent on affective and social learnings (Gum, 1969; Krathwohl, et. al., 1964; Trippi, 1966). Mosher and Sprinthall (1970) reported, "a general failure to promote positive and healthy personal development during adolescence is characteristic of our schools". Other critics (Glasser, 1969; Hollister, 1967) have pointed out that educators have traditionally only paid lip service to the affective domain. Holt (1969), in his book, *The Underachieving School,* said that "children want, more than they want anything else . . . to make sense of the world, themselves, and other human beings". Myrick (1969) and others felt that feelings and expression of one's self should play a major role in every child's education. Maslow (1968) stated that the most important learning experiences in one's life (those that influence the development of his personal identity, life choices, etc.) are the result of a person learning about himself, his values and attitudes, his life style, and how his behavior influences others. When this author has facilitated group guidance experiences with students who have dealt with their feelings, attitudes, values, or behavior choices, etc., he has frequently heard the question, "Why do we have to stop?" The students provide their own reason to the question by saying, "We are learning more here and are having a lot more fun." Comments by students, similar to the one above, along with the presently growing volumes of literature emphasize the need for more than just cognitive education. This need, affective education, must be met and in a systematic way so that each student can willingly develop his own potentiality.

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It is with the developmental approach which considers the total "life space" of the child that Havighurst (1970) tried to meet the needs of people through his developmental task theory. He said that "the individual learns his way through life." It is this learning process about which Havighurst (1970) said, "is a long series of tasks to learn where learning well brings satisfaction and reward, while learning poorly brings unhappiness and social disapproval (p. 2)." For example, if a student has developed some degree of independence from his parents when he starts school, he will generally be able to play and work with his peers and teacher and will also be able to do things by himself. If he has not accomplished this task of independence, he will generally find it difficult to adjust to the new school situation. Havighurst called these tasks "developmental tasks" of life.

He defined a developmental task as:

> . . . a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks (p. 2).

He also stated that:

> developmental tasks may arise from physical maturation, from the pressure of the cultural process upon the individual, from the desire, aspiration, and values of the emerging personality, and

> they arise in most cases from combinations of these factors acting together (p. 4).

See Appendix A for the developmental tasks for middle childhood, ages six to twelve.

Recognizing the implications of Havighurst's concept of "developmental tasks" and the need for guidance in elementary schools (Farwell & Peters, 1957; Garry, 1963; Gordon, 1956; Kowitz & Kowitz, 1959; Smith & Eckerson, 1966; Dinkmeyer, 1968; Gum, 1969) a program for training Elementary School Guidance Counselors (Gum, 1969) was initiated at the University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD).

The Duluth program developed a list of specific goals (See Appendix B) which "capture the developmental flavor advocated" (Gum, 1969). Gum (1969) said that these goals must be "an integral part of the school . . . be a continuous process aimed at meeting the developing needs of all pupils . . . requires emphasis on the affective domain as well as cognitive, on the social as well as physical development (p. 12)." Grams (1966) stated that the "total human being" is our goal, ". . . to the extent that it is possible to assist the individual to maximize their potentiality . . . both affective 'non-cognitive' learning as well as cognitive . . . (pp. 30-31)."

With the above objectives and goals in mind, the graduate students and faculty in the UMD Educational Psychology department have been creating and developing Developmental Guidance Experiences (DGEs). A DGE is a short learning experience designed to facilitate sociopsychological growth, utilizing Havighurst's developmental task theory as a basis for formulating structure. According to Gum, et. al. (1973), "these experiences are designed to encourage personal and open discussion about both sides of a moral or ethical issue related to a developmental task. The DGEs are also designed to help students become more aware of their feelings and practice expressing them." These experiences are used with groups of students or adults to facilitate "those enhancing experiences in appropriate sequential order and at the 'teachable moment' so as to maximize positive growth of all individuals (Gum, 1969)."

This developmental guidance approach as others needs systematic evaluation. Educators (Dinkmeyer, 1968; Lewis, 1968; Kirby, 1971; Kranzler, 1968; Howard & Zempfer, 1972) have been stressing the need and importance for research in the area of developmental guidance.

Barclay (1966), after having reviewed different research studies, stated that children tend to develop a relatively stationary behavior pattern which does not change unless there is some kind of behavioral intervention (group guidance). Barclay also said, "social undesirability felt by them can result in general transference of negative attitudes towards learnings." Glick (1969) along with Williams (1958), Egmond (1960), and Schmuck (1962a) found a strong relationship between high acceptance among peers and achievement (utilization of abilities: defined as how much the student is achieving in relation to his intelligence). Other studies have found that sociometric status was related to personality characteristics (Smith, 1950; Brown, 1954), and social skills (Kuhlen & Collister, 1952; Bretsch, 1952). Schmuck (1962b & 1963) found relationships among peer liking patterns in the classroom and pupil attitudes and achievement. Hurlock (1968) said that, "the older child is well aware of what his classmates think of him and whether they like him or not." Hurlock went on to say that, "those that are popular" (more accepted) ". . . smile more frequently, engage in some form of cooperative, voluntary group activity, make more voluntary contributions to the group, are less likely to be alone during play, are less aggressive, and are primarily 'group-centered' rather than self-centered."

It has been assumed from these studies that increased amounts and distribution of verbal participation among members tend to reflect a larger degree of peer group cohesiveness and liking.

It is the purpose of this study to test the hypothesis that the DGE approach to developmental group guidance has an effect on the peer liking relations and the verbal participation of the members within small groups of an elementary school.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Group Guidance — Developmental

The research and literature specifically dealing with developmental group guidance is quite limited. Advances of this approach have been few in the past years. More recently Blocker (1966), Anderson and Schmidt (1967), Dinkmeyer (1968), Gum (1969), and Gum, et. al. (1973) have advocated the developmental approach to group guidance and counseling.

A study by James Rath (1962) at a Campus Elementary School was initiated to help students become clearer about their own purposes. It was hoped that this, in turn, would develop more active and purposeful learners. The study was conducted with one hundred fourth grade students. Among the procedures used were free writing and role-playing which were to elicit students attitudes. The results of the study were that 88 out of the 100 students had made some gain on five measured dimensions. These dimensions (1. raising of questions and alternatives, 2. initiation and self direction, 3. perseverance, 4. active participation, and 5. attitudes toward learning) were rated by the teaching specialists.

A study conducted by Schiffer (1967) indicated that group play therapy is effective in changing behavior and peer relations. The sample consisted of 33 boys between the ages of nine and eleven. There were various combinations of group therapy, therapists, recreation leaders, and parent therapy sessions used in five randomly selected groups. The students who were involved in the play therapy groups "stabilized" their peer relations over the treatment period, the control group members exhibited an increase in maladjustment. It would probably be easier to replicate these outcomes if the treatment procedures were more clearly delineated.

A study designed by Weinstein (1970) involved the use of role play techniques on the topic of perception. These techniques were used on a sample of thirty 10 and 11 year old boys from a demonstration school. The purpose was to create a "connected classroom situation" which would, in turn, encourage the development of a positive self-concept within each of the students. The unit of lessons, according to Weinstein, "seemed" to achieve many of the desired outcomes; "the original participants seemed more attentive to others and less destructive." However, these judgments were not based upon systematically collected data.

Anna Dobson (1971) utilized group guidance as a means to establish rapport within an elementary school. The approach involved assembling for a group session the children that attended the school from one family, so that the counselor could get to know the students better. The counselor met separately with each of the family groups (children only) at selected hours. According to the counselor this approach opened many new avenues of communication with the students and parents. Students greeted the counselor more and there were more frequent visits to the guidance office as a result of the meetings. The evaluation of the program seemed to have been completed in a very unorganized manner.

Anandam et al. (1971) attempted to assess the difference between a class which was reinforced for expressing feelings with a class which discussed what feelings were and what could be done when one has feelings. Pre- and post-treatment measures included observations, children's self-social constructs, and sociometric choices. Post results indicated significant differences in the latter mentioned groups on individual involvement in lessons and interaction with teacher and peers. The experimenter stated, somewhat unclearly, that he found that teachers, "can obtain the objectives of a feelings class if they choose to include feelings classes as part of the curriculum." Apparently this means that teachers can encourage students to express their feelings during regular class discussion.

A pilot study to determine the effectiveness of guidance classes in developing self-understanding in elementary school children was conducted by Bedrosian, et. al. (1970). The findings indicated that an instructional program of 30 lessons in guidance with fourth graders helps significantly to prevent accumulation of pressures and frustrations, and it also contributes toward reduction of guidance needs of children. The study also pointed out that a classroom teacher with sufficient in-service training can be more effective in implementing classroom guidance (significant at the .01 level) than a counselor. An interpretation of this finding might be that the classroom teacher's effectiveness was due to the teacher spending more time with the students than the counselor.

Stanford (1972) did a study on psychological education in the classroom. The study included four experimental seminar groups and four control seminar groups. Each group met twice a week for 18 weeks. The selection of students was done via randomization with approximately 10 students per seminar. The control group's seminar consisted of a prescribed English course. In the experimental seminars approximately one half of the time was devoted to matters of emotional and social development and the remaining half to the above mentioned English class. The results, after assessment, showed that both the experimentals and controls had gained on a grammar test, but the experimentals had significantly higher gains at the .01 level. This finding seems to confirm earlier writings which suggested that when deliberate attention is given to social and emotional development in the classroom, there are many positive cognitive effective results.

A research study conducted by Olson (1968) assessed the effects of developmental guidance units on the classroom social structure. The sample included an experimental group of 25 second grade students and a control of 26 second grade students. The experimental group received 18 twenty minute sessions in developmental group guidance. Although the results were not significant according to Olson there appeared to be some implications. First, the counselor through the use of developmental guidance can establish a rapport with students which seems to enable students to be less hesitant about being honest. Second, developmental guidance seems to be an economic way of building helping relationships. Third, developmental guidance seems to be able to delay the process of popular children becoming more popular and less popular children becoming less popular. The latter implication contains some elements in-common with Bedrosian et al. (1970).

A study on the modification of cheating behavior through developmental guidance in a group of fourth grade children was conducted by Korpela (1968). Two different treatment procedures were used in the study. One group received guidance concerned with general honesty but not with the specific behavior being tested, whereas group two received guidance dealing specifically with the behavior being tested. The study also separated girls and boys and then analyzed the differences utilizing a two-way analysis of variance with sex and ability the independent variables and honesty the dependent variable. The results suggest that in providing guidance, educators should not expect generalized statements or sessions dealing with honesty to transfer to specific situations where students might be tempted to cheat. Also, there was no difference in honesty rating of high and low ability students. Another outcome indicated that neither sex nor ability had an effect upon the non-cheating behavior of students.

Anderson and Ellingson (1970) conducted a study on the effects of developmental guidance units on the self-concept of second and fifth grade children. The children were randomly assigned to six groups of fifteen at each grade level. Then each group was randomly assigned to one of the two counselors. Four groups at each level met twice a week for six weeks for thirty minutes per session. The remaining two groups at each level had no contact with these experiences. Instrumentation incorporated the use of Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory in a pre-post research approach. The results were non-significant at the .05 level. The experimenters felt that their results were possibly due to several factors. First, the DGE treatment was to global, second, the composition of their groups even though randomly selected, and third, insensitivity of the instrument. They recommended that in future studies observation and peer group ratings be used in the assessment process.

Halpin et al. (1972) assessed the effects of classroom guidance on sociometric status of second grade students. The treatment materials (Methods in Human Development: Bessell & Palomares, 1969) emphasized the promotion of positive feelings and behavior toward others. The sample consisted of 95 subjects randomly selected from 127 students in five second grade classes. The results were significant at the .05 level for a one-tail test and indicated that there was a difference in the choice-rejection gain of the four treatment groups. There also was significant change in the mean choice-rejection gain of the two groups that received two sessions per week as compared to the control group. Thus these findings indicated that two guidance activities per week bring about more significant change than one session per week. The study was very unclear about the number of treatments each of the treatment groups received, thus making it relatively hard to replicate.

Summary and Implications of Group Guidance Literature

The literature and research specifically concerned with developmental group guidance is quite limited. The writings or studies that do exist are primarily concerned with group guidance, not mentioning the developmental approach.

Many of the previous studies did not include systematic research and statistical methods. Some of the authors seemed to assume "positive" outcomes without having the necessary data for making their judgments. In view of these shortcomings many of the above mentioned studies tend to report results which probably are of limited practical use and difficult to replicate.

However, there are some general implications which can be gleaned from their work. Raths (1962), Schiffer (1967), Weinstein (1970), and Dobson (1971) seem to imply that when group guidance actively involves the students, and effective results in behavior change can occur. The sharing of feelings and ideas, according to Weinstein (1970), Raths (1962), Bedrosian et al. (1970), and Anandam et al. (1971), seems to have potential for individual change and development. Bedrosian et al.'s (1970) study infers that teachers, with some in-service training, can effectively facilitate group guidance in the classroom. Bedrosian, et al. (1970), Olson (1968), and Schiffer (1967) seem to feel that group guidance can be preventive and remedial simultaneously. Anandam et al. (1971) and Stanford (1972) suggest that time spent with group guidance does not necessarily hinder or restrict but can increase cognitive learning. Group guidance, according to Schiffer (1967) and Halpin et al. (1972), can have significant affects on a student's sociometric status.

Peer Liking Assessment

Sociometric measurement within the classroom has produced many interesting and diverse research studies. Cunningham (1951) designed a scale called a "classroom social distance scale". This scale was later modified by Sears (1963). Other experimenters have used the basic idea of social distance (peer liking or acceptance) and have found significant relationships between this and a child's attitudes, values, self-concept, and utilization of abilities. Most of the following studies have been conducted at elementary school level unless indicated otherwise.

A study conducted by Williams (1958) sampled 117 elementary school children from three schools. Their intelligence quotient score was 130 or more. By using the Classroom Social Distance Scale sociometric data was gathered on the extent of acceptance. A case study approach was used with 12 of the above sampled children, six highly accepted and six highly rejected. The findings indicated that there seemed to be (1) no real difference between high and low acceptees on intelligence; (2) a more favorable amount of social performance on the part of the high acceptees; (3) a greater level of acceptance of group members on the part of high acceptees; (4) no appreciable difference between high or low acceptees in regards to characteristics valued in friends; (5) more constantly satisfying interpersonal relationships among the high acceptees (the reverse was true for the low acceptees); (6) fulfillment of emotional needs more highly characteristic of the high acceptees than the low acceptees.

Brown's (1954) study on high school students was concerned with factors in the environment which affect social acceptance among classmates. A sociometric test was used to determine criterion. The findings indicated that students of low average intelligence were more likely to be found in low-acceptance groups, while students of high average intelligence were in high-acceptance groups. The study also indicated that the greater number of school social organizations a student was in, the greater the likelihood of his being in the high-acceptance group.

Von Egmonds (1960) inquired into the connection between a student's utilization of abilities and his sociometric status. The results showed that girls with high liking status utilized their abilities more extensively than did girls with low liking status. Boys that had higher influence status utilized their abilities more extensively than did boys with lower influence status.

A research study conducted by Kuhlen and Collister (1952) showed that students who drop out of high school were less accepted socially by their classmates. The study extended over several years and contained follow-up to the previously administered assessment device. Those who dropped out were described as, "unfriendly . . . unpopular . . . not good looking . . . listless . . ."

Flanders et al. (1960), in collecting data in an experiment on the effects of teacher-pupil contacts involving praise, found that teacher-pupil interaction involving praise which was supportive and constructive strongly increases the chance of a pupil receiving greater acceptance by his peers.

In an experiment Kranzler et al. (1966) did not find any significance between counseling and teacher guidance with elementary school children by using sociometric status. The data did seem to suggest that teachers can bring about certain kinds of behavior modification in the classroom. The authors did feel that in order for the teacher to bring about these changes, he would need to know or be aware of the student's sociometric status and have some suggestions as to what to do for the student. This would seem to imply that usually teachers who are completely on their own have difficulty utilizing guidance groups for improving affective feelings and liking behavior in their classrooms.

Lippitt and Gold (1959) did a research exploration into the development and maintenance of a classroom socio-emotional structure. The sample included the students from 39 elementary classrooms. The students rated each other on a four point scale which provided a picture of the classroom social structure. The results clearly indicated that the "interpersonal social structure of the classroom forms rapidly and maintains a high degree of stability." Direct observations of classroom interaction indicated that students low in peer liking status tend to have interpersonal relationship difficulties, behavior patterns which disrupt the classroom group, and express less positive affect toward other students. It is unclear what is meant by "less positive affect", however it is assumed this means students express less positive feelings toward their peers.

Fox et al. (1966a) commented on two patterns of classroom friendships. These patterns were based on ten years of longitudinal data (Fox, et al.; 1966b). These two patterns (diffuse and narrowly focused) create different kinds of emotional environments which effect the student's academic achievement and personal adjustment. The diffuse pattern is indicative of every student being strongly liked by some of his classmates and generally most of these students have a good feeling about school. The narrowly focused pattern contains cliques. One clique is most liked by generally all while another clique is slightly liked by a few. This pattern also has those who do not belong to a clique and have few or no friends. The narrowly focused pattern also includes students who do not generally feel good about themselves and school.

Schmuck (1962a) did a preliminary analysis of eight upper elementary school classrooms and found that (1) students more accurately estimate their status position in centrally structured groups which were characterized by a narrow focus of interpersonal acceptance and rejection than in diffusely structured groups that were characterized by a wide range of positive and negative choices, and (2) students who are accurate in estimating their status and have a low status in the group are lower utilizers of their academic abilities than are students who are accurate and have a high status.

Schmuck (1963), in a later study, concurred with some of his earlier findings and found several correlations between the "learning environment" and the individual. Schmuck found that:

> (1) classroom peer groups with a wide range of liking choices (diffuse liking structures) tend to have more positive group affect than classrooms with narrowly focused liking distributions (central liking structures), (2) pupils are more accurate in estimating their actual liking statuses in peer groups characterized by bimodal centrality (both positive and negative dimensions of liking area narrowly focused) than in groups characterized by diffuseness (both positive and negative dimensions widely focused). Specifically, pupils who have low liking status in elementary classrooms tend to cognize their low position more accurately in the centrally structured situation than in the diffusely structured one, (3) pupils who are accurate when estimating their position in a liking structure and who are negatively placed in that structure are lower utilizers of academic abilities and have less positive attitudes toward self and school than pupils who are accurate and positively placed. Furthermore, pupils who cognize themselves as being liked, though they have low actual liking status, are utilizing their abilities more highly and have more positive attitudes toward self and school than those pupils who have low status and know it, (4) for elementary-school pupils who are highly involved in the classroom peer group (high potency of involvement), significant relationships exist between actual liking status on the one hand and

> utilization of abilities, attitude toward self, and attitude toward school on the other hand. These same associations do not exist under conditions of low potency on involvement in the classroom peer group, and (5) the attitudes toward self of pupils with high potency of involvement in the peer group is more positive as peer-group liking structure increases in diffuseness (pp. 357-358).

Summary and Implications of Peer Liking Assessment

Sociometric status (peer liking or acceptance), according to the reported research was related to many personal and social characteristics such as achievement (Glick, 1969; Williams, 1958; Egmond, 1960; Schmuck, 1962a), personality characteristics (Smith, 1950; Brown, 1954), and social skills (Kuhlen & Collister, 1952; Bretsch, 1952). Flanders' et al. (1960) research indicated a relationship between teacher praise and amount of peer acceptance. Schmuck (1962b, 1963) found relationships between peer liking patterns in the classroom to pupil attitudes and achievement. Fox et al. (1964) summarized most of Lippitt and Gold (1959), Fox et al. (1966a), and Schmuck (1962a & 1963) by saying:

> that peer groups characterized by a wide spread of liking relations among members have some positive emotional climates; that peer group liking structure and pupil involvement in the group help to fashion a pupil's perception of himself in relation to the peer group; that this perception of self in relation to others is associated with a pupil's attitudes toward self and school; and that pupil's perception of his place in the peer group is related also to his utilization of abilities (p. 106).

The rationale for the use of sociometric status as a criterion in assessing peer liking relations was supported by the preceding literature and research. Flanders & Havumaki (1960) and Kranzler et al. (1966) indicated that sociometric scores can change through the induction of experimental treatments.

RESEARCH METHODS

It was the purpose of this research study to test hypothesis that the Developmental Guidance Experience (DGE) approach to developmental group guidance has an effect on the peer liking relations and the verbal participation of the members within small groups from elementary school.

Selection of Subjects

This study involved two elementary school teachers, an elementary school guidance counselor, and 51 students from two fourth grade classrooms at Endion Elementary School, Duluth, Minnesota. The classes were selected on the basis that: (1) their classrooms were within the same general location in the school building, (2) the teachers had previously worked together on class projects, exchanged groups of students and taken field trips together. From these observations it seemed that these classrooms had many similar learning experiences, (3) the counselor had been in each classroom four times prior to the experiment, and (4) the teachers were willing and interested in being involved in the study.

The research design selected was chosen after determining that the students had been randomly placed, the previous Spring, into their present fourth grade classroom. The following procedure tells how two experimental and two control groups were formed from the two classrooms. First, each class was separated according to sex. Then each of these groups (male and female) within a classroom were split by randomly assigning its members either to an experimental or control group. This procedure was followed in both classrooms thus forming one experimental and one control per classroom. Table 1 indicates the separation by sex and the assignment to experimental or control groups.

TABLE 1. Experimental and Control Subjects by Sex and Classroom

	Experimentals		Controls		
	males	females	males	females	
Classroom #1	8	5	8	4	= 25
Classroom #2	7	6	7	6	= 26
TOTALS	15	11	15	10	= 51

Table 1 illustrates that eight randomly selected males and five randomly selected females comprised the experimental group from classroom # 1. The control group from classroom # 1 was made up of eight males and four females. Classroom # 1's total membership was 25.

After the experimentals were assigned the experimenter randomly assigned one of the experimental groups to receive twice as many DGEs as the other experimental group. The above process created E_1 (experimental group which would receive one DGE per week) and C_1 its control group along with E_2 (experimental group which would receive two DGEs per week) and C_2 its control group.

Treatment Conditions

The treatment involved the facilitating of eight or 16 different DGEs with the two experimental groups by the elementary school guidance counselor. The DGEs chosen were primarily based on three developmental tasks (See Appendix A) which were: Task #3, Learning to get along with age-mates; Task #6, Developing concepts necessary for everyday living; and Task #9, Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions. The DGEs chosen utilized three experiences based on task #3, three experiences based on task #6, and two experiences based on task #9. Initially the investigator planned to facilitate 10 and 20 DGEs with these groups, but scheduling and time problems allowed only eight and 16 DGEs. These experiences seemed appropriate for helping these two classrooms to better their peer relations.

Eight pairs of DGEs were designed and used in this study. Each pair included two DGEs which were designed to facilitate the same general purpose. E_1 received eight DGEs, one from each pair. Each of the above eight DGEs was randomly selected from a pair. E_2 received the total sixteen DGEs. The same general sequence of DGEs was followed when implementing the DGEs to both groups.

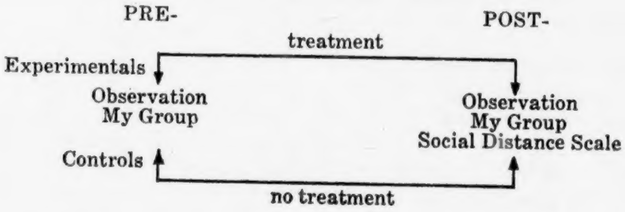
The experiences (DGEs) for both groups took place in the same room away from their own respective classroom and control group. Each experience ran for approximately 30 minutes each time. E_1 met with the counselor on Tuesdays at 1:30 and E_2 met with the counselor on Tuesdays and Thursdays at 2:30. While the experimental groups were out of the classroom, the teachers had previously agreed to have the control groups doing similar activities; students were only supervised, not instructed, and the students would use their time doing individual lessons or projects.

Test Procedure

The assessment procedure involved a pre-post testing approach. All the assessment of both groups took place in the same room but at different times. These groups were pre- and post tested separately because the measures taken assessed their "interaction" with one another as a group. E_1 was assessed first, then C_1, followed by E_2, and then C_2. This order along with the exact same time of day was adhered to in the pre- and post assessment.

Upon entering the testing room a systematic procedure was followed (See Appendix C) to insure like conditions. Each assessment session involved a behavioral observation measurement of the amount of verbal participation of the individual students during a problem-solving task, and the administration of a sociometric instrument entitled, "My Group." Another sociometric instrument entitled, "Social Distance Scale", was used during the post assessment period. Table 2 indicates the pre-post assessment pattern. This table indicates the assessment and treatment procedures used in this study. On the left hand side of the table the experimental and control groups were assessed with two devices; Observation of group, and "My Group", a sociometric instrument. Then moving to the right in the table, along the lines treatment procedures are indicated. The right hand side of the table illustrates the three post assessment devices used with the experimental and control groups; Observation of group, "My Group", and the "Social Distance Scale", which is also a sociometric device.

TABLE 2. Pre-Post Assessment Pattern by Experimental and Control



Instrumentation

A simple observational technique was used in this study. Before the observation technique could be utilized two similar problem-solving tasks needed to be developed. This was completed prior to the pre-assessment. A sample study with another fourth grade class was conducted. These members were randomly selected according to the previous method, thus providing a similar composition to those groups in the research study. The sample study involved two sessions where the students were placed in a semi-circle. They were given a sample task (a different task each time) and the same instructions as the forthcoming study groups. The results from the sample study seem to indicate that the two problem-solving tasks were similar in directions, easy to understand, and completed in the alotted time.

A semi-circle seating arrangement was chosen for the problem-solving situation. Each student was assigned a number from one to ten going from left to right around the semi-circle. This numbering system made it easy for the observers to observe and record the members within the groups. The observers sat at the open end but slightly back from the group (See Appendix D).

During the problem-solving tasks the two observers separately kept a tabulation of the number of times each member of that group talked during the problem-solving task. The tabulation process required the two observers to follow these guides: (1) indicate by number the person who talked during the problem-solving task, (2) a person's number could not be written again until he stopped to let another person talk before continuing to talk himself, and (3) if two or more started talking at the same time, all their numbers were recorded. In order for one of these individual's number to be recorded again he needed to follow # 2 above.

The behavioral observation technique counted the number of times each individual participated verbally during the problem-solving tasks. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the reliability between the two observers. Pre-assessment reliability on all for groups was .93 and .97 on the post assessment reliability. These correlation coefficients are significant at the .001 level for a two-tail test — 36 df (McCall, 1970).

The simple behavioral observation technique was designed rather than selecting one of the already existing interaction techniques, such as Hill's Interaction Matrix (Hill, 1971). Hill's technique and others produce complex data which qualify and quantify information beyond the scope of this paper.

"My Group" (See Appendix G) was a sociometric instrument which was a slight modification of "My Classmates" (Fox et al., 1966a). On this nine point scale each student rated the other members in his group on how he felt toward or liked them.

The author was not able to get validity data on this instrument, but the instrument had been used in previous studies by Fox, et. al. (1966b). Gronlund (1959) and Barclay (1966) have indicated that there is considerable evidence that sociometric scores over a test-retest period of several weeks or months are highly stable and have correlations of about .80. Anastasi (1971) said,

> when sociometric ratings were . . . checked against a variety of practical criteria dependent on interpersonal relations, such ratings have been found to

> have good predictive validity. These findings are understandable when we consider . . . the number of raters is large, including the whole group . . . an individual's peers are often in a particularly favorable position to observe his typical behavior . . . the opinions of group members — right or wrong — influence their actions. . . . Other comparable groups may be expected to react toward the individual in a similar fashion. Sociometric ratings may thus be said to have content validity . . . (pp. 541-542).

But according to Pepinsky (1949), "the concept of 'reliability' and 'validity' . . . seem to have little direct meaning of application to the field of sociometry."

The "Social Distance Scale" (Sears, 1963) (See Appendix H), a sociometric instrument, was used to indicate how each member in the group felt toward or liked the other members of his group. The rating on this device was done a five point scale. Sears (1963) when using the Spearman Brown Formula on data from this instrument found the following correlations:

Liking *for others,* both sexes	.95
Liking *by others,* both sexes	.90

The study also contained stability data from Fall to Spring:

Liking *for others,* both sexes	.55
Liking *by others,* both sexes	.77

Miller, Gum, & Bender (1972) reported .84 test retest reliability on the instrument with 247 second graders.

The Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the correlation between the data obtained from "My Group" and the "Social Distance Scale". The correlation coefficient on "liking by others" between the two instruments was .90. The correlation coefficient on the "liking for others" between the two instruments was .72. These correlation coefficients are significant at the .001 level for a two tail test — 36 df (McCall, 1970).

The "liking by others" data from "My Group" was used in the study. Each member's post score was subtracted from his prescore leaving his difference score. Each pre and post score was the sum result of eight or nine separate ratings of an individual by his peers. Therefore his difference score was the result of eight or nine students changing their ratings of him in some way. The total difference score for that group would not change to any great degree because of one students drastic change in his ratings for others. This is not the case in "liking for others". In this formulation of difference scores, the sum score of an individual for others is considered. One student's ratings could change tremendously from pre- to post thus creating a big variance in the difference scores for that group. This possible variance in "liking for others" data also would not appear to agree with the "liking by others" data. In view of this potential variance, "liking for others" data was not used in this study.

The major analysis within this study was made utilizing analysis of variance techniques using pre- and post test score differences from "My Group" and the observation technique. The Newman-Keuls Method (Winer, 1962) was also used to identify the differences among the experimental and control groups. In analyzing the data the following null hypotheses were tested with rejection at the .05 level of significance (McCall, 1970).

(1) There is no significant difference among the two experimental and two control groups with regard to "liking by others".

The data for this decision was obtained from the "My Group" assessment device. A analysis of variance on repeated measures using difference scores (pre- minus post) was used in this analysis. This data was also compared in the Newman Keuls Method (Winer, 1962) to further determine the group differences.

(2) There is no significant difference among the two experimental and one control groups with regard to verbal participation.

The data for this decision was obtained from the behavioral observation technique. A two-way analysis of variance was used on the difference scores (post minus pre-). The four students with the largest amount of verbal participation in the pre-assessment observation within each group were compared to the four students with the smallest amount of verbal participation in the pre-assessment observation within each group. The comparison between the highs and the lows was also made across the different groups (See Appendix K). Only the top four and bottom four participants were used in this comparison because of the uneven size groups. This data was also compared in the Newman Keuls Method (Winer, 1962) to further determine the group differences.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

When analyzing the data the author used only those students who were present at both pre- and post assessment. In the pre-assessment the following number of students were absent: E_1 two boys and one girl; C_1 one boy and one girl; E_2 three boys and one girl; and C_2 one boy and two girls. There was also one girl absent from C_1 on the day of post assessment. The analysis of the data was based on the following size groups:

E_1 — 6 boys and 4 girls = 10
C_1 — 7 boys and 2 girls = 9
E_2 — 4 boys and 5 girls = 9
C_2 — 6 boys and 4 girls = 10

The groups that received the DGEs in this study were E_1, one DGE per week, and E_2, two DGEs per week. C_1 and C_2 were the two control groups.

The C_2 group behavioral observation data was not included in this study due to the fact that the group was only observed one-half the allotted time during the pre-assessment period, because a snowstorm forced a early dismissal from school. However, the sociometric data, "My Group", was collected during the pre-assessment period and therefore was used in testing the first hypothesis.

The following two null hypothesis were tested using analysis of variance techniques. An F test was used to test the significance of the difference scores in repeated measures. The following tables summarize the findings for each of the groups tested under each hypothesis.

Hypothesis One: There is no significant difference among the two experimental and two control groups with regard to "liking by others"

TABLE 3. Total Difference Scores between Pre- and Post Test on "Liking by Others"

C_1	C_2	E_2	E_1
11	48	49	126

As reported in Table 3 experimental group$_1$ had a total difference score on "liking by others" of 126 as compared to control group$_1$ which had a total difference score of 11.

TABLE 4. Summary of Simple Analysis of Variance on Repeated Measures in "Liking by Others"

	df	SS	MS	F
Group	3	657.43	219.14	6.5**
Error	34	1141.8	33.58	

$^{**}F_{.01}$ (3,34) = 4.42

The F ratio in Table 4 of 6.5 resulted from the analysis of variance on the difference scores in "liking by others". This result is significant at the .01 level, therefore the null hypothesis is rejected. The analysis does not indicate which group or groups contribute significantly to the obtained F value. Therefore the above cell values (Table 3) were compared, using the Newman Keuls Method (Table 5) for further comparison (Winer, 1962).

TABLE 5. Newman-Keuls Method of Total Difference Score Comparison on "Liking by Others"

		Controls		Experimentals	
		C_1	C_2	E_2	E_1
	Total Difference Score	11	48	49	126
C_1	11	—	37	88	115
C_2	48		—	1	78
E_2	49			—	77
E_1	126				—
			C_2	E_2	E_1
Q values at .01 level			3.86	4.41	4.75
Critical values at .01 level			62.14	67.29	76.47
Q values at .05 level			2.88	3.47	3.82
Critical values at .05 level			46.36	52.95	61.50

df = (r,34)

Table 5 starts by ranking the groups from Table 3 according to their total difference scores, 11, 48, 49 and 126. These scores are put into the "total difference score" row and column according to their ranking. Then these totals are subtracted from each other. For example, C_1 (11) in the row is subtracted from C_2 (48) in the column which equals 37.

The lower half of Table 5 determines the critical values at which the above remainders (37, 38, etc.) are considered significant. The Q values for the .01 and .05 levels were found using df (r,34) and a Q table (Winer, 1962). The Q values were then used in a formula (Winer, 1962) to determine the critical values for their respective significant levels. The critical value

76.47 at the .01 level is smaller than the (126 minus 11 =) 115 remainder. Therefore E_1 is significantly different at the .01 level from C_1. The results of the comparisons made in Table 5 are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6. Summary of Newman-Keuls Method of Total Difference Score Comparison of "Liking by Others"

Groups	C_1	C_2	E_2	E_1
C_1		—	—	**
C_2			—	**
E_2				**
E_1				

** = .01 level
* = .05 level

As shown in Table 6, E_1 is significantly different from C_1, C_2 and E_2 at the .01 level.

Hypothesis Two: There is no significant difference among the two experimental and one control groups with regard to verbal participation

TABLE 7. Total Difference Scores Between Post and Pre-Test on Verbal Participation

		Treatment Groups		
		E_1	E_2	C_1
Levels	Top (4) participants	–14	37	– 95
		7	22	– 2
		20	72	1
		–16	61	– 19
	Total	– 3	192	–115
	Bottom (4) participants	6	19	27
		12	43	– 8
		29	56	12
		60	24	14
	Total	107	142	45
	Grand Total	104	334	– 70

Table 7 shows the individual difference scores for the top group in E_1 as –14, 7, 20, and –16. Their total difference score (each individual's post minus pre-score) is a –3. This means that the top E_1 participants generally received a slightly higher pre-observation score, whereas the top participants in E_2 generally received a much higher post observation score. Appendix J presents this data (in mean scores) graphically.

TABLE 8. Summary of Two-way Analysis of Variance on Repeated Measures in Verbal Participation

	df	SS	MS	F
Levels	1	2017.67	2017.67	3.08
Treatment	2	10266.33	5133.17	7.83**
Levels and Treatment	2	3008.33	1504.17	2.29
within	18	11792.00	655.10	

$F_{.05}$ (1,18) = 4.41 $F_{.05}$ (2,18) = 3.55
$F_{.01}$ (1,18) = 8.28 $F_{.01}$ (2,18) = 6.01**

The F ratios in Table 8 were the result of the two-way analysis of variance on the difference scores in verbal participation. The F ratio 7.83 for source treatment was significant at the .01 level, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The analysis does not indicate which group or groups contribute significantly to the obtained F value. Therefore the above cell values (Table 7) were compared, using the Newman-Keuls Method (Table 9) for further comparison (Winer, 1962).

TABLE 9. Newman-Keuls Method of Total Difference Score Comparison on Verbal Participation

		C_1	E_1	E_3
	Total Difference Score	–70	104	334
C_1	–70	—	174	404
E_1	104		—	230
E_3	334			—

	E_1	E_3
Q values at .01 level	4.07	4.70
Critical values at .01 level	294.60	340.23
Q values at .05 level	2.97	3.61
Critical values at .05 level	214.99	261.32

df = (r,18)

Table 9 starts by ranking the groups from Table 7 according to their total difference scores. These scores are then put into the "total difference score" row and column. These totals are subtracted from each other.

The lower half of Table 9 determines the critical values at which the above remainders (174, 404, etc.) are considered significant. The results of the comparisons made in Table 9 are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10. Summary of Newman-Keuls Method of Total Difference Score Comparison on Verbal Participation

Groups	C_1	E_1	E_2
C_1		—	**
E_1			—
E_2			

** = .01 level

Table 10 shows that E_2 is significantly different from C_1 at the .01 level. As indicated in the total difference scores (Table 9), there appeared to be a greater increase in verbal participation as a result of an increase in DGEs.

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

Educators at all levels are becoming more concerned with affective and social education. The need for affective and social learning in being stressed by educators as well as students because the traditional curriculum is not meeting the changing needs of students.

Developmental Guidance is an approach which incorporates cognitive, affective, social, and physical education in a process of trying to meet the needs of the individual and those of the society. Gum (1969) used Havighurst's model of developmental task theory and has developed an approach which attempts to meet the needs of students within the school structure. Gum's approach led to the Developmental Guidance Experience (DGE) concept (Gum et al., 1973) which aims at maximizing the potential of all the students through these short learning experiences designed to facilitate "sociopsychological growth".

It was the purpose of this study to research the effects of DGEs on peer liking relations and verbal participation within small groups in an elementary school. A sociometric instrument, "My Group", and a behavioral observation technique were used for assessment of those objectives.

The study involved 51 students from two fourth grade classrooms and an elementary school guidance counselor. The two classrooms were randomly split (equalizing boys and girls) to provide one experimental and one control group per classroom, creating two experimental and two control groups. One of the experimental groups, E_1 received eight DGEs, one per week. Each of the above eight DGEs were randomly selected from eight pairs of DGEs. Each pair included two DGEs which were designed to facilitate the same general purpose. E_2 received the total of sixteen DGEs (the eight pairs) two per week.

The assessment instruments used in this study were "My Group" and an observational technique on verbal participation. "My Group", a sociometric instrument, gave each student a chance to rate, on a nine point scale, how he felt toward or liked the other members within his group. The observation technique involved having two observers count the number of times each individual, within a small group (approximately 10), verbally participated during a problem-solving task.

The hypotheses tested in this study, were as follows:

(1) There is no significant difference among the two experimental and two control groups with regard to "liking by others".

(2) There is no significant difference among the two experimental and one control groups with regard to verbal participation.

The statistical analysis of the assessment data from "My Group" (liking by others) was used in a simple analysis of variance. The results indicated a significant difference at the .01 level among the groups, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The difference score totals were then compared in the Newman Keuls Method to determine which groups were significantly different. The results here showed that E_1 was significantly different from C_1, C_2, and E_2 at the .01 level.

The observational data was analyzed in a two-way analysis of variance. The results indicated a significant difference at the .01 level among the groups, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. The difference score totals were then compared in the Newman Keuls Method to determine which groups were significantly different. This comparison showed that E_2 was significantly different from C_1 at the .01 level. As indicated in the total difference scores, there appeared to be a greater increase in verbal participation as a result of an increase in DGEs.

Discussion and Conclusions

The "liking by others" was significantly changed as the result of DGEs in the experimental group that had received eight DGEs. This change did not take place in the group that received 16 DGEs. Several possible reasons for the resulting differences could be: (1) the degree of freedom the different groups had in their classrooms to experiment with the newly found behaviors,

(2) the instrument could have reached its "ceiling" (sensitivity) because E_2 did start at a higher level of "liking by others" and thus was limited in the degree of possible increase that could be measured. Future studies should look at different ways of equating teachers and students. It was observed by the investigator that the teacher of the group that received the eight DGEs seemed much more open and accepting of students and their different behaviors. Possibly, in the future, students could be assessed first on an instrument and then blocked according to the results. This blocking could be done within a classroom, along with each of these groups receiving a different number of DGEs. This approach would possibly point out the role the teacher plays in the effectiveness of the DGEs.

The data also indicated that DGEs increase the verbal participation of group members. The more DGEs facilitated, the more the verbal participation that took place in the assessment sessions. When looking at the different groups there appears to be a direct correlation between the number of DGEs and the amount of verbal participation.

Implications

The significant increase in the "liking by others" suggests that DGEs can increase interpersonal acceptance among young children. DGEs would provide teachers and counselors, or any one who works with children with an approach which could improve peer acceptance. Children that move frequently and isolates could be rapidly incorporated into the friendship circle and thus feel like part of the group. When children know that they are accepted by their peers, they tend to feel good about themselves and what they do. Children that feel content are more apt to try out new behavior and explore the world around them. School and home thus become a happier and more exciting place to grow up. Acceptance by peers helps a child maximize his development in academic achievement, psychological soundness, and his ability to get along with his family and friends.

Children that develop acceptance for their peers would possibly grow up to accept their peers as adults. Such things as prejudice, unfair housing, unfair employment, etc. could then be lost to antiquity.

Verbal participation was also significantly increased as a result of DGEs. Children who verbally share with one another also generally are willing to listen to what the other people have to say. Talking is communicating and communicating involves the sharing of ideas, thoughts, feelings, and ways of life. Children become aware of each other and the world around them by talking and listening to others. A child grows every time he talks to others and they in turn talk to him. The sharing of ideas and feelings help individuals experience new ideas, places, and things. Talking provides students (people) with a communication which helps make them the human being they hope to be.

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APPENDIX A

Developmental Tasks for Middle Childhood
(6-12)

1. Learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
2. Building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
3. Learning to get along with age-mates.
4. Learning an appropriate masculine or feminine social role.
5. Developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.
6. Developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7. Developing conscience, morality, and a scale of values.
8. Achieving personal independence.
9. Developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

This is the list of developmental tasks as listed in *Developmental Tasks and Education* (1970) by Havighurst.

APPENDIX B

Specific Goals for Elementary Guidance enunciated by G. Dean Miller (Grams, 1966)

1. To assist the individual child in deriving positive personal meaning from learning.
2. To help the individual child to become more aware of his being and assist him in developing a positive attitude toward self.
3. To assist the individual child to develop a positive attitude toward life.
4. To help the individual child experience satisfaction from his relations with adults and other children.
5. To identify and communicate to parents facilitating attitudes and experiences which will enhance the child's success early in life (preschool) as well as sustained support during his school life.
6. To identify and communicate to teachers facilitating behavior which they may utilize to enhance the child's opportunity for success in the school setting.
7. To assist the individual child to develop competence with which he can cope with frustration and conflict in his personal-social life.
8. To help the individual child become aware of the place of values in life and to assist him developing a system of his own but one which is compatible with a pluralistic society.

To the above goals Dr. Gum added the following:

1. To facilitate the individual's understanding and acceptance of physical growth and development.
2. To enable the individual to become sensitive to others and to value mankind.
3. To help the child to understand and to prize democratic values.

APPENDIX C

The following instructions were read to each group when they were about to enter the testing room.

> As you come into the room you may choose the place you would like to sit. (Post assessment the students were asked to sit where they had sat during the pre-assessment.) You may talk and be comfortable while an observer is writing down your names.

An observer wrote down each student's name by the corresponding number which was fastened to the desk where the students were seated (See Appendix D). After the names were written down the following instructions were read to the students:

> While you are here with us today, I would like to have you do something together. As you are doing this I am going to ask you to try to follow two rules: (1) stay in your seat, and (2) one person try to talk at a time. Are there any questions? I am going to read a paragraph to you. *Listen* carefully. You may ask questions after I have finished reading (See Appendix E) the paragraph. Now are there any questions? You will have up to 30 minutes to finish the task. Once you start we will not answer any questions you might have concerning the task. You will have to answer them amongst yourselves. Are there any questions? BEGIN

Prior to reading the paragraph to the students two pieces of writing paper and two pencils were placed on the desk with number seven attached to it. That desk was chosen, to place the papers on, for all the groups prior to the assessment.

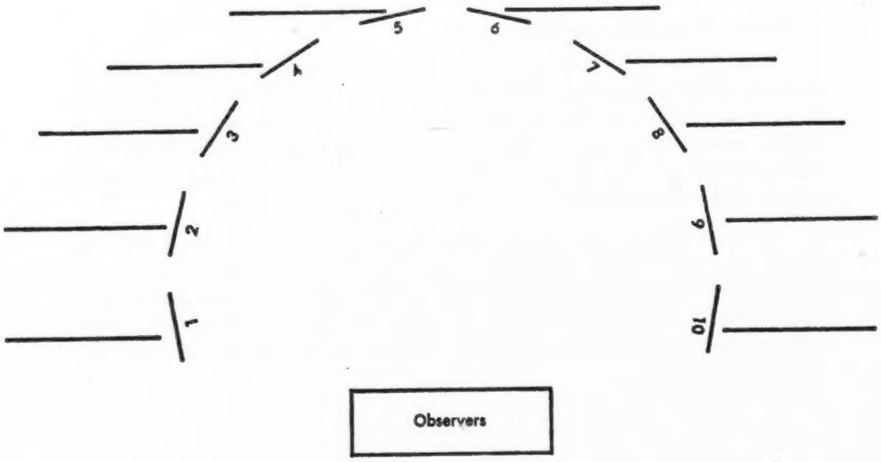
When the individual groups finished the task, the observers collected the written report (s). The students were then given a five minute break. The break was followed by the administration of the sociometric instrument (s).

APPENDIX D

SEATING CHART

Group____________________

Date____________________


1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
Observers

APPENDIX E

PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS

Used at Pre-assessment

I am a very wealthy man. I am going to send all of you on a trip to a far away land. You will fly high up in the sky in a big beautiful airplane. Your plane will go through the clouds like a giant bird. Suddenly, you will leave the soft fluffy clouds and you will come back to earth. You will stay one week in the country where your plane lands.

I would like *your* group to write *one* report of what that country was like. Everyone in the group should try to agree on what is written in the report which will be given to me.

Used at Post assessment

Last month I took a trip to a distant land. It was a beautiful country with many things to see and do. While I was there, I took a ride into the wilderness. On this short trip I saw this large group of animals. They were all the same animal and very different than anything I had ever seen before. I did not know what they were called or anything else about them.

I want all of you to be that group of animals. You tell me what you are called and what you do all day. I would like *your* group to write *one* report which would answer any questions I would have about that group of animals. Everyone in the group should try to *agree* on what is written in the report which will be given to me.

APPENDIX F

Group____________________

Date____________________

START Observer____________________

1	2	3	4	5
↓				

APPENDIX G

My Group

Group____________

Everyone has some things about him you like and some things about him you don't like so much. Some people seem to have more things about them you like and other people have more things about them you don't like.

Look at the circles below. Suppose that each circle stands for a different kind of person. Each person has things you like and don't like. Circle 1 has all (+) in it. This stands for a person who has only things about him you like. Circle 9 has all (–) in it. This stands for a person who has only things about him you don't like. The other circles have different numbers of pluses and minuses. These circles stand for people who have different amounts of certain things about them that you like and that you don't like.

For each person in this group, pick the circle that shows the combination of things you like and don't like. Then put a check ( ) for each person under the circle you choose. Check just one circle for each person. Do this for yourself, too. *There are no right or wrong answers.* This information is confidential, no one else will see it.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	++++ ++++	++++ +++–	++++ ++––	++++ +–––	++++ ––––	+++– ––––	++–– ––––	+––– ––––	–––– ––––

APPENDIX H

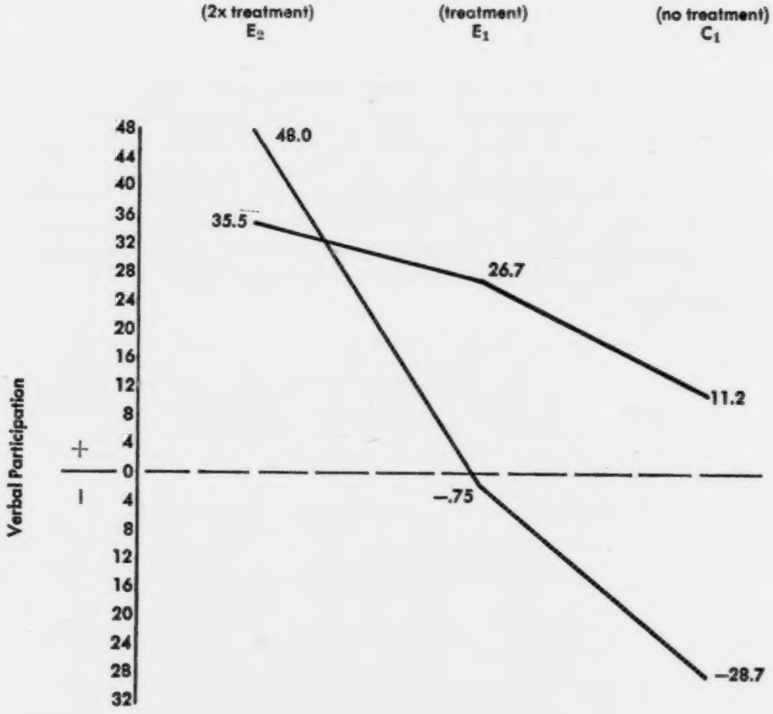
Name____________________________ Group__________________

Date____________________________

We don't like all of our friends in the same way. Some we like more than others. There may be some people we don't like at all. It is a help to me to understand your feelings. Beside each name listed, put a check in the space under the statement which most nearly describes your feelings about that person. When you come to your name, check the space which describes how you think most of the boys and girls feel about you. Substitute "her" for "him" when checking a girl's name. *This paper will be kept in confidence.*

	Would like to have him as one of my best friends	Would like to have him in my group but not as a close friend	Would like to be with him once in a while but not often nor for a long time	I would rather not have anything to do with him	Dislike him
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					

APPENDIX I



This graph illustrates six means, two for each of the three groups. Each group has two sub-groups, top and bottom. Each sub-group has a plotted number which represents a mean score. Each mean score is made up by the average of four raw scores. The mean represents the gain or loss of the amount of verbal participation for that particular sub-group.

The mean for the top sub-group in E_2 is 48. This mean means that the E_2 participants increased their post observation amount of verbal participation on an average 48 times more than during pre-observation.

COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS IN THE CLASSROOM: AN IN-SERVICE PROGRAM TO FOSTER TEACHER GROWTH

Dennis L. Haversack and Gary Perrin*

Introduction

At the inception of the elementary guidance and counseling program in Hopkins School District No. 274 in 1967, a program emphasizing counseling was begun. Developmental aspects involving consulting with teachers and parents and working through classrooms were included but not stressed. This program consisted of the counselor, about three-fourths of the time, working in his office with students on a one to one, or small group basis. About one-fourth of the time was spent in consultation and in-service. This model worked well within the counseling context. However, when a wider evaluation of the desired behavioral outcomes was made, these outcomes were not readily apparent nor tremendously rewarding for other significant populations — i.e. classroom teachers, administrators, and parents. Satisfactory achievement of behavioral objectives in the counselor's office had little carry over or payoffs to other groups.

Counselors then moved in the direction of using a consultation model to achieve more hoped for and expressed outcomes with the various populations they serve. The consultation model seemingly progressed in two steps. The first step was to more thoroughly include teachers more in the planning and data gathering stages of program development. More specifically this meant talking with teachers, offering ideas, suggestions and encouragement to the teachers to take more responsibility for identifying and meeting student needs. The second step was the actual teaming of counselors and teachers in working with a student on a troublesome problem. The counselor provided a model and strong support for teachers to go ahead and work with problems in their classroom that previously had been dealt with in the office of the counselor or principal. In short, the counselors began modeling and teaching the use of communication techniques very directly with teachers. The response from the teachers was very positive and they reported getting many rewards from using communication techniques in their classrooms.

Realizing that teachers were interested in and capable of applying communication skills in the classroom, the counselors began to systematize the dissemination of information. It seemed to make sense to build and develop a prevention program for teachers instead of waiting for a crisis to arise in the classroom. Areas which had had the most payoff for teachers were selected and proceedings began to construct a course that would effectively and efficiently provide teachers with the opportunity to incorporate the skills. Teachers responded in overwhelming numbers to the offerings of the course.

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*Mr. Haversack and Mr. Perrin are elementary school counselors with the Hopkins school district. The project was supported out of ESEA Title III funds through Pupil Personnel Services, Minnesota Department of Education.

Method

The model for the course was presented to the upper administration in the school district. These administrators accepted the notion and endorsed it to be offered as a district in-service course. This course could be taken for two district school board credits or for money at the rate of $5.00 per hour.

This in-service course, entitled Communication Systems in the Classroom, was designed to be a proactive stance rather than a reactive stance, and the total teaching model was built around this idea. The basic outline and direction of the course was as follows:

COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS IN THE CLASSROOM

Course Objectives

(1) Develop group discussion skills for classroom use.

(2) Develop an understanding for communication systems and use of the Self/Other Model.

(3) Develop skills for understanding children's communications by using reflective and intensive learning.

(4) Develop skills for sending clear messages to children by using commenting or confrontation messages.

(5) Develop goal setting skills for ourselves and help children apply these skills to themselves.

(6) Develop problem-solving techniques for classroom use.

(7) Develop methods for negotiating conflict and modifying the behavior of the child and the adult.

UNIT I — Communication Flow and Ownership of Problem — Overview

Objectives

A. To be able to correctly represent a communication diagram graphically and explain its meaning accurately.

B. To be able to correctly identify communication flow, ownership of problem, and skills which apply to each model.

C. To learn to apply listening via a subject-matter group discussion.

UNIT II — Goal Setting Skills

Objectives

A. To be able to set useful goals which are attainable, measurable, achievable, explainable, and observable.

B. To learn the form and format of goal setting.

UNIT III — Receiving Skills

Objectives

A. Teachers, when given a list of teacher responses (to students), will correctly categorize 12 out of 15 using the *Communications Patterns* answer sheet.

B. Teachers, when given a list of student statements, will write a reflective-intensive listening response each time.

C. Teachers, when shown video tape segments of student-teacher interaction, will correctly select a list of responses at 90 per cent level of accuracy.

UNIT IV — Follow-up of Unit III

Further pursue objectives of Unit III by discussing and doing more practice of skills.

UNIT V — Group Discussions Skills

Objectives

A. Teachers, when given the discussion grid (including types of discussions and labels) and told to complete it, will list two (2) points (exclusive of each other) under both purpose and teacher posture.

B. Teachers, when asked to list reasons, values, or purposes for group discussions, will list at least three (3) purposes exclusive of each other.

C. Teachers will answer correctly four (4) out of six (6) multiple choice questions concerning prerequisites and pitfalls of group discussions.

UNIT VI — Behavioral Reinforcement Skills

Objectives

A. Teachers will be able to define behavior by the end of the unit.

B. To present the model of punishment and rewards so that teachers will be able to describe the model currently operating in the classroom.

C. To introduce successive approximation as a way of shaping group and individual behavior.

D. Teachers will be able to define base line behavior and represent it graphically.

E. To teach teachers how to dispense rewards at the appropriate time.

F. Teachers will be able to represent behavior change graphically by the end of the unit.

UNIT VII — Summary

Objectives

A. To do final examination to see if course objectives were achieved.

B. Present Self/Other model as a means of employing skills taught by course.

The teaching model was an adaptation of a model developed by Margaret Hoopes (1968).[1]

PLANNING, PRESENTING, AND IMPROVING

A. *Preassessment.* This procedure involves determining a person's present level of performance. It includes not only statistics, but how he thinks and feels about his job. An example of this is the checking out of expectations at the beginning of a lab or an exercise.

B. *Statement of the Objectives.* The objectives state the purpose of the lab, the training program, the exercise, etc.

C. *Presentation of Conceptual Information.* This information is what a person needs to know in order to change. It tells him (1) what it will look like after the change is made, (2) how to make the change, (3) why a change is necessary, and (4) how it is possible to change.

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[1] Unpublished manuscript, University of Minnesota, 1968.

D. *Simulation Exercises.* These exercises are designed to help a person act like he will act when change has been made. In other words, if you want an individual to participate in consensus decision-making in his job, you would provide an exercise in consensus decision-making.

E. *Integration Through Discussion.* After (or during the time) a person has practiced acting the new way, he needs to have help in integrating it into his life. One method is to hold a discussion about the "benefits" or "advantages" of the new behavior and/or how acting differently will make a difference. The individual may want to discuss the relationship between the new actions and the way he wants to be in his job.

F. *Action Plan and Follow-up.* After practicing the new behavior, the person who is making a change should establish explicit goals for action plans. He then should negotiate with someone in the group as to how he can be helpful to him in accomplishing his action plan.

G. *Evaluation.*

Data collection for this project was made by identifying critical conceptual material and restating the general objectives for the conceptual material in specific behavioral terms, e.g., in the sending unit, to have teachers correctly identify and complete incomplete sending messages six out of ten times.

Following the specifying of the behavioral objectives, the building of criterion reference paper and pencil tools was constructed (see Appendix) to quantify teachers' knowledge in a given area and to measure change, if any, of the educational experience. These criterion reference tools were made to be as life-like as possible by using video tapes, outside observers and test takers to approximate some measure of validity of these tools. Teachers were tested on a pre and post basis to evaluate their knowledge before having experienced the conceptual material and following the educational experience. Pre tests were given before each two and a half hour class session and the post tests were given at the completion of the course which ran eight weeks.

Results

The following two tables present the analysis of the data gathered by the criterion reference instruments presented to teachers who participated in the Communication Systems in the Classroom course. Seven areas were examined. First is the teachers' diagnosis of the levels of communication involvement with others. The second is goal setting. The third area experience is that of receiving communication and the fourth area is learning about the impact of your typical response. The fifth is learning how to send clear and congruent messages. The last two areas deal with behavior modification, i.e., identifying specific target behaviors and giving positive reinforcement.

The null hypothesis: there is no statistically significant difference between the means of the pre and post testing of the participating teachers in the Communications Systems in the Classroom course.

The test statistic used was a *t* test where

$$t = r\sqrt{\frac{N-2}{\sqrt{1-r^2}}}$$ [2]

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[2] Walker, H. M. and Lev, J. *Statistical Inference.* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1953, p. 251.

Table 1

Analysis of Teachers' Scores on Seven Concepts Presented in a Counselor Led In-Service Course on Classroom Communication Systems

Group I, Fall 1971

Communication Concept	Pre Mean	Post Mean	*t*	N
Communication Flow and Ownership of Problem	7.20	9.60	4.50**	25
Goal Setting	32.56	40.04	6.48**	25
Receiving	5.70	9.75	4.62**	20
Communication Patterns	9.54	10.37	2.68*	24
Sending	19.75	25.25	6.75**	24
Target Behavior	11.50	13.45	2.62**	20
Positive Reinforcement	6.36	7.77	3.48**	22

*Significant at .05

**Significant at .01

Table 2

Analysis of Teachers' Scores on Seven Concepts Presented in a Counselor Led In-Service Course on Classroom Communications Systems

Group II, Spring 1972

Communication Concept	Pre Mean	Post Mean	*t*	N
Communication Flow and Ownership of Problem	7.48	10.52	6.40**	25
Goal Setting	26.62	39.79	10.98**	24
Receiving	7.43	9.70	5.41**	23
Communication Patterns	9.74	10.43	1.86	23
Sending	19.04	26.44	5.74**	25
Target Behavior	8.73	13.13	3.51**	15
Positive Reinforcement	7.00	7.43	1.36	14

*Significant at .05

**Significant at .01

Note that two groups of teachers were surveyed. One group was surveyed in the fall, the second group in the spring of the same school year. Interestingly, the fall group showed significant growth and supported our hypothesis in all areas. The group in the spring showed significant growth in all areas except Communication Patterns or the impact of their typical kinds of responses and giving positive reinforcement. Perhaps an explanation for the scores reported on the Communications pattern subtest is that the labels themselves are not mutually exclusive and discrete; also the one 2-hour session may be inadequate to master the concepts presented. Also, the answer sheet format is relatively complex and could account for some variance. Lastly, inflection of verbal communication is extremely important and was not controlled for the testing procedure.

The area of positive reinforcement suffers from a ceiling effect because there are not enough items on the instrument to statistically discriminate between responses pre and post.

Discussion

It is our belief that the basic course objectives were met. For further growth and expansion of the course we would recommend the following adaptations. Feedback indicates that for some teachers the need to spend more time of selected areas is crucial. This is true also for some areas or units of study in and of themselves (i.e., Communication Patterns). Therefore, we recommend that options be given for the time spent in studying the areas available. A side effect for this type of option could also be that of higher motivation on the part of teachers as they take a more active role in their own learning.

In the area of continuing research we recommend the following: expansion of instruments to counter the ceiling effect noted; a long-term follow-up to measure retention of conceptual material; critical evaluation of the applications made of the conceptual material by evaluating the uses made in the teachers' classroom.

We find it important to caution the reader in generalizing the teaching of communication skills such as those cited here on anything other than an involved and small scale which allows for deciphering the contextual system operating and provides means to support the teacher's growth. We also believe it is critical that the environment in which a teacher operates be made ready to accept and facilitate his/her growth.

At this point in our development we chose to work directly with the teachers and their systems, as we feel it is our active participation in these systems which facilitates the changes reported in this study.

Editor's Note: For anyone interested in pursuing involvement of the authors in conducting a workshop experience, contact Dennis Haversack (612-935-3449), or Gary Perrin (612-935-8497), Hopkins Public Schools, 1001 State Highway #7, Hopkins, Minnesota 55343, for specific details.

Appendix

Number__________________

GOAL SETTING

DIRECTIONS: Here are several statements. If they are complete goals, circle yes; if they are not, circle no — *also* circle those components that are lacking.

1. To develop an understanding of fractions.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

2. To help children to grow into happy, productive community members.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

3. I will train my class to hang up their tennis shoes within five (5) minutes after returning from gym.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

4. I will use reflective listening with my pupils between 1:00 and 1:30 on Tuesday and Thursday for three (3) weeks during November, 1970.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

5. I will teach Randy his multiplication facts.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

6. I will meet with Jill ten (10) minutes per day for two weeks in December 1970 or until she correctly reproduces the vowel sounds (a) and (e) at least four (4) out of seven (7) times.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

7. To have independent study periods at least twice a week.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

8. I will help the class set goals for their social studies project.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

9. I will expect my class to form two lines and walk to the lunchroom without talking, pushing, or putting their hands on the walls, every day at lunch time.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

10. I will give Jimmy compliments at least three (3) times per day when he stays in his seat and attends to his work.

Yes No

Achievable Measurable Explainable Observable

Identification of Target Behavior

Which of the following constitute target behaviors —

1. Jim has a low self concept.
2. David is out of his seat.
3. Sue can't find the right page in reading.
4. John is daydreaming all the time.
5. Sally doesn't like Social Studies.
6. Gary can't do his Math.
7. Jerry is turning around in his seat and talking to George.
8. Mary is punching Sue.
9. Eric is a loner.
10. Alex is careless.
11. John is an egotist.
12. Dixie is talking out loud without asking for permission.
13. Wade turned in his math assignment late today.
14. Jane has dyslexia.

Video Tape Situations

DIRECTIONS: After viewing the video tape, select the most appropriate response and place an X on the line next to it.

Situation #1

James is punching David as you are conducting a language arts lesson; you notice this behavior and say . . .

_____a. Stop hitting David and pay attention.

_____b. You shouldn't be hitting him because then he can't listen and he won't know what we are talking about.

_____c. I'm upset that you are punching David; please stop.

_____d. I'm upset that you are punching David, because I want to get done as quickly as I can; I want you to pay attention to what I'm saying.

Situation #1A

James sits in his seat, facing you and showing recognition responses. At this time you say to him . . .

_____a. Nothing.

_____b. That's better than you were before.

_____c. I feel good when you're looking at me and showing that you are paying attention.

_____d. You're doing a good job now.

Situation #2

Sara is not following in her reading book. She is reading ahead of her classmates. Your response to Sara is . . .

_____a. I know you're interested in what's going to happen, but please wait for the rest of us.

_____b. I get scared when you read ahead of us, because I'm afraid you will miss part of what we're saying; I want you to read along with us.

_____c. You are not being fair to the other children when you read ahead; please stop it.

_____d. You'll have to learn to wait for the rest of us.

Situation #2A

Sara is now reading on the same page as the other students; your response is . . .

_____a. Thank you.

_____b. That wasn't so tough.

_____c. You're reading along with the rest of us now; I like that.

_____d. You'll enjoy the story more now that you're with the rest of the group.

Situation #3

Susan is not taking part in your Social Studies discussion; she is looking around the room — at the ceiling, the floor, out the windows, etc. Your response to her is . . .

_____a. Susan, you're not listening and it is bothering the rest of the class.

_____b. I worked hard on this lesson and I want your attention.

_____c. I'm hurt that you are looking around the room, because I feel that you don't think my teaching is worthwhile. I want you to participate in the discussion.

_____d. If you don't pay attention, how do you expect to know about Social Studies?

Situation #3A

Susan is now raising her hand and contributing to the discussion. Your response is . . .

_____a. You really do want to learn about Social Studies.

_____b. You feel good about participating.

_____c. I like it when you raise your hand and participate.

_____d. Your mother will be glad to hear about your participating in class.

Situation #4

Walter talks out without raising his hand during classroom discussions. After a period of time you say . . .

_____a. When you're the teacher, you make your own rules, but until then you will have to follow the rules of this room.

_____b. Walter, there are plenty of other people in this room who want to talk; wait your turn!

_____c. Ignore Walter's comments and call on someone else.

_____d. I'm angry that you just talk anytime that you want to when the rest of us have to follow the rules. I want you to raise your hand if you want to talk.

Situation #4A

Walter is sitting in his seat attending to the discussion, raising his hand and waiting for opportunities to contribute. You say . . .

_____a. Well it looks like you finally want to be a member of the group.

_____b. I feel good when you follow the rules about raising your hand when you want to talk.

_____c. Ignore Walter, hoping to teach him a lesson.

_____d. Walter is raising his hand, Class!

Name____________________

Communication Flow and Ownership of Problem

Indicate flow of communication with an arrow (me → you) and who owns the problem.

1. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

2. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

3. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

4. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

5. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

6. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

7. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

8. ME ______________ YOU

________________________________ Ownership

Number____________________

You will see ten (10) video tape segments. After each segment, circle the letter of the statement that examplifies facilitative listening. If you disagree with all the statements you may write your own response in the space (f) provided.

1. "I don't want to finish this assignment. It was a stupid thing to have to do anyway."
    - a. You will have to get it done sooner or later. Why not now?
    - b. Why do you think that it is stupid?
    - c. I don't think it is as tough as you make out.
    - d. It sounds like the assignment really bothers you.
    - e. Have that assignment on my desk before you go home!
    - f.
2. Jimmy always asks me for answers or looks at my paper during math. What should I do?
You should —
    - a. Cover up your paper. Don't let him see your work and don't answer his questions.
    - b. You really don't think that what Jimmy does is fair.
    - c. What do you want to do about it?
    - d. Well, he won't know how to do the problems when we have the test and you'll do better than he will.
    - e. Go and get Jimmy. We'll settle this right now.
    - f.
3. When I get to be a sixth grader, I'm really going to give it to the younger kids on the playground.
    - a. You want to get even for what the sixth graders do to you.
    - b. Why would you want to do a thing like that?
    - c. When you're in sixth grade you should set an example for the rest of the school.
    - d. What's the matter. Can't you take it?
    - e. You better not let me catch you.
    - f.
4. I think we should stop singing the song after we pledge to the flag because not everybody sings and most of the kids just joke around anyway.
    - a. Does anybody else feel the same way you do?
    - b. The way I see it is we are in the United States and as long as we are, we should sing a patriotic song.
    - c. You sound upset about the way we sing the song.
    - d. I know a lot of us can't sing, but we try hard.
    - e. What could we do to make it better?
    - f.
5. Man, school is really great. The kids in our room are super, the work is cinchy and the teachers O.K. too. I guess I'd just as soon be here as any place in the world.
    - a. I'm glad to hear you say that.
    - b. Why do you think so?
    - c. What your behavior tells me is you really have had a good day.
    - d. Yes, school can be a great place especially when you kids cooperate.
    - e. You're really feeling great about school.
    - f.

6. "David and John are picking on me during recess and I don't like what they are doing."
   a. Well, what are you doing?
   b. Tell them to Stop picking on you.
   c. You are such a cry baby.
   d. David and John are poking you and you're upset about that.
   e. Hit them back.
   f.

7. I don't understand this math (crying).
   a. No wonder, you never listen.
   b. Why not?
   c. Here, I'll show you how to do the math problem.
   d. Don't do the math now, come back to it later.
   e. This math stuff has got you pretty upset.
   f.

8. The lunch room lady made me leave the cafeteria today, because she said I was making too much noise — I wasn't even talking.
   a. You had to leave and you weren't even doing anything?
   b. She must of had a good reason.
   c. I've seen how you act in the cafeteria.
   d. Maybe she didn't see the other kids doing anything.
   e. That's terrible — I'll talk to her about that.
   f.

9. I got 100% on my Spelling test today!
   a. I hope you can do that all the time.
   b. Whose paper did you look at?
   c. See, I told you so.
   d. You feel good about doing so well on the test.
   e. Now, if you could only do that well in math.
   f.

10. I'm mad at David.
    a. David's been picking at you again, huh?
    b. I'll take care of him.
    c. You're upset with Dave.
    d. Can't you guys ever get along.
    e. Your Mom told me you'd be a cry baby.
    f.

No.____________

Communication Patterns

Here is a statement and several responses. Read the statement and responses then identify the response style on your answer sheet.

"School is really a drag this year."

1. "I don't want to hear that kind of talk!"
2. "Oh, it's really not that bad."
3. "What you're saying is, 'I don't like myself'."
4. "School is really important for you. You ought to do your best if you want to make it in this world.
5. "Not much fun, huh?"
6. "I know your mother wouldn't like you to say something like that."
7. "What do you expect, coke and cookies?"
8. "Stop that."
9. "Why say something like that?"
10. "You should buckle down."
11. "Why don't you like school?"
12. "When you get to be teacher you can do things the way you want to."
13. "Look at the paper I am handing back."
14. "What do you think you could do to make school better?"
15. "You're not very happy with school."

No.________

Communication Patterns

Answer Sheet

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Commander General (bosses, orders)															
Cross Examiner (Why, blaming)															
The Family Psychologist (This is your problem)															
The Disqualifier															
The Preacher (preaches, tells you what you should do)															
The Cynic (Makes fun)															
The Facilitator (Passive listener)															

Confrontation Skills

Here are ten confronting messages. Identify them as to their completeness or incompleteness by circling the appropriate answer.

1. I get so discouraged when I try to correct your paper when you write so small.

   Answer: complete or incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

2. You are making too much of a mess when you use the tempera paints.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

3. You're driving me crazy.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

4. I am very disappointed and upset that our class couldn't line up by themselves quietly and am afraid I'll have to go back to dismissing you myself again.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

5. Do you want to go to the principal's office?

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

6. I can't stand your loud talking, stop talking for five minutes.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

7. Tom, stop being so silly.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

8. I'm pretty hurt and disappointed when you ignore me and forget what I say to you because you and I can't work together.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
   me, you, result.

9. I am really excited to see you smile, keep it up.

   Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing:
   me, you, result.

10. You know what I said about doing that before!

    Answer: Complete — incomplete. If incomplete circle what is missing;
    me, you, result.

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IN-SERVICE CONSULTATION: AN ORGANIZED EFFORT TO CHANGE TEACHER ATTITUDES

Elizabeth A. Schilson[*]

The role of the elementary school counselor as a consultant to teachers received strong support when in 1966 a role statement prepared by the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) and the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) was presented to the national convention of the American Personnel and Guidance Association. This statement (ACES-ASCA, 1966) identified consultation as one of the major responsibilities of the counselor. Later, in 1970, this statement was supported by an excellent rationale written by Dinkmeyer and Caldwell:

> Guidance services for all must become a fact and not merely a theory. Consultation provides a procedure which increases the possibility of contacting more individuals. It is apparent that regardless of the counselor-student ratio, no counselor can effectively work individually with all of the children, their teachers, and parents. An overemphasis on counseling frequently becomes an emphasis on remedial guidance, which affects comparatively few children. Consultation recognizes that throughout the nation we still have a majority of self-contained classrooms in the elementary school. Teachers in these situations have available a unique opportunity to create a learning environment and provide individual guidance. It has been estimated that the elementary school teacher spends approximately 1,000 hours a year in the classroom. This can result in meaningful and personalized learning experiences if the teacher is acquainted with certain guidance procedures.
>
> The consultant recognizes that the teacher in practice must carry on certain identification procedures and relationships with each child. The teacher becomes the primary screen for the identification of guidance needs and the establishment of plans for maximizing the development of each child.
>
> The counselor becomes a consultant in human relationships who seeks collaboration from all who

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> affect the development of the child. He is concerned with the parents, teachers, school administrators, and all the pupil personnel specialists. In his work with the teachers, a major emphasis is placed upon increasing the teacher's effectiveness in understanding and relating to each child and to the total classroom group.

There have been several articles (Kaczkowski, 1967; Dinkmeyer, 1968; McGehearty, 1969; Hume, 1970) that have discussed possible areas that would be appropriate for an elementary school counselor consultant. Most writers have agreed with Pellegreno (1970) that teachers should be helped to become more aware of the affective domain and the role emotions play in the classroom. He has stated that "by collaborating with teachers about the learning climate of their classroom, the counselor can be a positive factor in the lives of a greater number of students."

Influence of Teacher on Classroom Climate and Self-Concept

Studies have shown that teachers, in the way in which they communicate with their children, can influence the classroom group process, and in turn, the self-concept. Flanders and Havumaki (1960) have shown that teachers' support and constructive praise were likely to increase students' sociometric position among their classmates. In another study Schmuck and Van Egmond (1965) produced results which indicated that the teacher, especially as a social-emotional leader, had an effect on the academic performances of the children independent, to a significant degree, of the effects of parents and peers.

Davidson and Lang (1960) used an objective checklist with fourth, fifth and sixth graders and reported that children's perceptions of their teacher's feelings toward them correlated positively and significantly with self perceptions and also with academic achievement and teacher ratings of desirable behavior.

Spaulding (1965) found that highest pupil self-concept was significantly related to calm, acceptant teacher behavior with private, individualized instruction, a concern for divergency and learner support. Strong support was found for positive relationships between pupil self-concept and teacher behavior, particularly with having a high degree of private or semi-private communication with the children, showing concern and attentiveness to pupil needs, having a low degree of negative evaluation and little domination through threat.

In a study carried out by Staines (1958) it was concluded that it was possible to distinguish reliably between teachers in normal classrooms in respect to the frequency and kind of comments they made in reference to the self. Staines' study also showed that it is possible to teach so that specific improvement can be made in the student's self-picture.

Further research by Schmuck (1966) has indicated that teachers of more cohesive classroom groups, compared with other teachers, attended to and talked with a larger variety of students per hour. Many teachers with less positive classroom group processes tended to call on fewer students for participation and seemed especially to neglect the slower, less involved students. Teachers with more supportive peer groups tended to reward students for helpful behaviors with specific statements and to control behavioral disturbances with general, group-oriented statements. Teachers with less positive climates tended to reward individuals less often and to publicly reprimand them more often for breaking classroom rules. All of these results indicated that teachers can and do influence classroom group processes.

In synthesizing the results of these studies, it seems evident that teachers do, indeed, effect the self-concept and attitudes of their students by their behavior, style of teaching and verbalizing. There seems to be strong evidence for an immediate, and also some for a lasting and possibly multiplicative effect on the student. This conclusion seems very consistent with the concept of the use of the teacher, who already has an established relationship and much more exposure to students, in the elementary school consultant's efforts to influence student's self-concepts and attitudes toward school.

Models for the Consultant Role

The role of the consultant is based on four premises: 1) all children can best be served by consultation, 2) the teacher has the most opportunity for affecting the learning climate of the classroom as well as the self-concepts of the children, 3) good learning climate enables the child to develop to his full potential, and 4) many children who can profit from individual or group counseling can also be helped by the teacher under the above conditions (Franken, 1969).

Consultation consists of areas summarized by Muro (1970) to include: 1) helping the administration and teachers evaluate curriculum and instructional materials, 2) helping teachers understand child behavior and development, 3) assisting the staff to grow professionally, as in in-service training, and 4) assisting teachers in dealing with guidance problems by informing them of what teacher behaviors and attitudes enhance normal pupil development, as well as helping children with special problems and utilizing the teachers for enhancing their development.

Various models have been prepared as suitable frameworks for the elementary school counselor's role as consultant. Patouillet (1957) presented a model for child development consultants which would attempt to establish a mentally hygienic atmosphere in the school when the counselor served as a consultant and resource person to teachers. He saw the guidance counselor as "essentially a consultant in human relations who involves in a cooperative enterprise all those who affect the development of the child".

Faust (1967, 1968a) set forth the view of the counselor as primarily a consultant to those parties who have the responsibility and power to initiate change in the school, especially the teachers, since they are the chief agents of change. The primary way in which he suggested this relationship be developed was predominately through in-service training and case staffings.

Dinkmeyer (1971) has proposed a method of consultation labeled the "C" group in which principles of Adlerian psychology are used in helping groups of teachers understand human behavior in general and themselves, in particular. The method is called "C" group because the factors that tend to make the group most effective begin with that letter such as: collaboration, consultation, clarification, confrontation, communication, concern, caring, confidentiality and commitment.

Franken (1969) has described another model which is based on the importance of the child's self-concept, relationships between peers, and the child's relationship to the teacher, all of which are stressed to the teachers through in-service meetings, workshops, newsletters, video tapes, individual teacher consultations and group discussions. The underlying philosophy is to build effective learning climates for children.

The models discussed above have been based primarily on student-centered or Adlerian psychological bases. Recently there has been some discussion of utilizing behavior modification techniques in the consultation relationship. Dustin and Burden (1972) identified a consulting sequence using this approach, which contained the following procedures: problem identification, identification of problem behavior, identification of desired behavior, observation, program development and outcome evaluation. Inherent in this process is that the consultant will provide the teacher support and understanding. Mayer (1972) has suggested that such procedures as positive reinforcement, extinction, discriminative stimuli, fading and scheduling, could be applied in the consulting relationship with teachers.

Group Consultation through In-Service

Although research has shown that consultation with the classroom teacher seems to be effective in certain areas, it appears that it would be too time consuming to utilize in attempting to change the self-concept and attitudes toward school of all students. It seems more likely that consulting with groups of teachers would be more economical and effective.

In each of the proposed models one of the most important functions of the consultant is the development and implementation of in-service seminars or workshops with teachers. These in-service meetings usually involve discussion of dynamics of behavior or guidance procedure with teachers and fulfills some of the responsibilities mentioned in the ACES-ASCA (1966) statement:

> Participating in creating an environment conducive to learning and growth for all children by:
>
> 1) Helping members of the school staff to understand the effect of their behavior on children, the interaction between the child, adults, and the importance of this interaction in the development of the child's self-concept and relationship with his peers.
> 2) Being a member of the group considering innovations in the school program, pointing out the psychological effects of such changes on the child.
> 3) Planning with the teacher ways to foster acceptance and valuing of individual differences in addition to academic achievement.
> 4) Maintaining a constant interest in the needs of the individual and the welfare of the pupil population while interacting with other staff members, equally concerned about the individual pupil but with additional responsibilities and different preparation and background.
> 5) Providing and interpreting significant research data about the developmental needs of all children and the relation of those needs to the learning process.
> 6) Maintaining a constant emphasis on the need for continuing evaluation of the school's effort to meet individual pupil needs.

The involvement of the elementary school counselor in in-service training also affords the teachers an opportunity to gain some awareness of the guidance program and an understanding of the philosophy and need for guidance for young children. This method of group consultation provides an opportunity for the counselor to work closely with the teachers in a somewhat different kind of role from the roles he fills in his daily work. As the teachers and counselor work together during the in-service training conditions are present for a high degree of cohesiveness and teamwork to develop and prevail.

Almost every elementary school has a large number of staff members who have had limited training in guidance and in getting along with peers, administrators and pupils in an interpersonal relationship. In-service training can provide skills essential for improving themselves in this respect. As teachers spend a great amount of time with children during the children's formative years, improvement in the educational output and effectiveness of our schools is insured by helping teachers get training in effective communication and in understanding of interpersonal relationship dynamics. Such programs provide a means whereby teachers become familiar with newer ideas in education and guidance and with the application of recent research findings.

Orange County Public Schools (1968) in Orlando, Florida reported using an in-service training program designed to sensitize teachers to classroom procedure which seemed to facilitate positive change in students' self-concept as well as their own. In a pilot project with twenty-five first graders, the teacher rated children's self-concepts on an objective checklist. Children in the study made significant positive changes in self-concept and the number of social isolates significantly decreased.

Brown and MacDougall (1972) reported a project in which an in-service training program was provided by elementary school counselors for teachers in an urban elementary school in Virginia. The population of the school was about 400 and all fifteen teachers of grades one through six participated. The program began with an orientation session followed by seven weekly sessions lasting one and one-half hours each. The topics of discussion included: feelings and the acquisition of subject matter, self perceptions and how they learned, teacher pupil interactions, antecedents of teaching problems, and systematic instruction in socialization skills. In addition, teachers were also able to examine video tapes of their own classroom behaviors and discuss them with their peers. The program concentrated on developing in teachers insights into their own classroom behaviors and how their behaviors influence the learning environment of the child.

In analyzing the results, it was observed that the teachers reacted positively to the sessions with all of them asking for continuation and expansion of the program. In addition pre and post testing of the students on self-concept and related perceptions was reported. Students in grades three through six reported significantly higher self to peers perceptions; those in grade three and four indicated significantly higher self to peers, self to teacher, and total self perceptions. Brown and MacDougall concluded:

> In general, it was found that the described in-service teacher training program made a significant impact on the self perceptions of the children even though the children were not a part of the training program. For this reason, it is felt that consultation with the teacher concerning the topics explained and the format employed, is an important contribution to a child's feelings of self adequacy.

Short-term workshops have been used by elementary school counselors in an attempt to accomplish their objectives. Pietrofesa (1968) reported that in Detroit counselors were used to lead workshops designed to sensitize teachers to the implications of various elements of self-theory. Although no empirical results were collected, the "teachers felt that students seemed to develop greater self-understanding and that individual self-concepts were positively affected as a result."

In attempting to synthesize and evaluate the research on the effectiveness of consultation with teachers in changing self-concept and attitudes toward school, it appears that in-service training provided by counselors for teachers is usually effective in promoting positive student development in those areas.

Procedure

In January, 1972, G. Dean Miller, Elementary School Guidance Consultant, Pupil Personnel Services, Minnesota State Department of Education, and the author, met with the principals of the elementary public and parochial schools of East Grand Forks, Minnesota, to discuss the feasibility of presenting an in-service workshop concerning human relationship skills to teachers and principals. At the time that this study was being organized much attention was being given in Minnesota to requiring teachers to acquire training in human relations skills.* Teachers were very concerned and interested in this area of study.

Arrangements were made with the principals to meet with interested teachers and principals during the first week of Feb-

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**In organizing an in-service program it is imperative that it be based on the needs and interests of the teachers.*

ruary (1972) to present the purpose and objectives of the workshop and to discuss the time element. At the initial meeting fifteen teachers were present representing the public and parochial schools. Twelve elected to participate; ten completed the program. It was decided that the largest number of individuals could participate in the workshop if it were held on Mondays, from 6:00 to 9:00 p.m. for ten weeks, with the first meeting to be held on February 28.

During the ten sessions the material developed by Boerger (1971) in the Osseo Title III Guidance and Counseling Project was used. The first two sessions were devoted to building group cohesion through learning about each other, strengths analysis, and goal setting. Sessions three through seven were used to better communication with students: third session — attending behavior; fourth session — more listening; fifth session — disclosure; sixth session — conflict resolution; seventh session — more practice. Sessions eight and nine were spent on principles of behavior modification and initiating behavior modification projects. The last session was devoted to developmental and problem-centered meetings.

At each session the participants were asked to try out the newly practiced behavior in their classrooms during the next week. At the beginning of each session the participants were encouraged to share their experiences concerning the skill they had been practicing in their classrooms.

It is important to note that the Osseo material is consistent with the models for consultation presented above: a) a consultant in human relations who involves in a cooperative enterprise all those who affect the development of the child (Patouillet, 1957), b) use of in-service training as one of the predominate ways to involve teachers (Faust, 1967, 1968a), c) inclusion in the in-service training of the factors of collaboration, consultation, confrontation, communication, concern, caring, confidentiality and commitment (Dinkmeyer, 1971), d) stress of the importance of the child's self-concept, relationships between peers, and the child's relationship to the teacher (Franken, 1969), and e) utilization of behavior modification techniques (Dustin and Burden, 1972; Mayer, 1972).

Interpretation of Data

The Semantic Differential was used as a pre-post test instrument. Kerlinger (1964) has written that:

> The semantic differential is a method of observing and measuring the psychological meaning of

> things, usually concepts. . . . An actual SD consists of a number of scales, each of which is a bipolar adjective pair, chosen from a large number of such scales for a particular research purpose, together with the concepts to be rated with the scales. The scales, or bipolar adjectives, are seven-point (usually) rating scales, the underlying nature of which has been determined empirically. That is, each scale measures one, sometimes two, of the basic dimensions or factors that Osgood and his colleagues have found to be behind the scales: Evaluative, Potency, Activity. These factors may be called clusters of adjectives.

The concepts selected, which were conceived to be relevant to the research problem, were: feedback, listening, natural consequences, learning about each other, children's misbehavior, problem solving, risk taking, openness, attending behavior, conflict resolution, self-evaluating, goal setting and self-disclosure. Each concept appeared on a separate sheet with the same set of scales which had been randomly mixed from concept to concept.

The scales for the semantic differential were selected to represent the Evaluative factor. The scales used were: unpleasant-pleasant, cruel-kind, good-bad, love-hate, wise-foolish, unsuccessful-successful, rigid-flexible, and beautiful-ugly.

Statistically, the data were analyzed by *t* test.

Findings

The data from the pre and post test administration of the semantic differential were analyzed in two ways. First, the mean score was computed for each concept. The results are shown in Table I. The *t* test was conducted between the pre and post mean scores for each individual on each concept (Table II). Second, the mean scores were computed for the group for each concept and *t* tests were calculated. These results are given in Table III.

In Table I it can be seen that the participants who rated the concepts strongly positive on the pre-test (i.e., Participants A and H) did not maintain that level of response on the post test; whereas participants who rated the concepts less positively on the pre-test tended to rate the concepts more positively in the post test (i.e., Participant D), an example of the phenomenon of regression toward the mean.

It is of interest to note that Participant D was a young, two-year certified teacher, who was the member of the group the counselor-director felt benefitted more than any other from the in-service workshop. To this participant, on numerous occasions during the workshop, the material appeared to be entirely new. Several times she questioned why she had not received "this type of training" in undergraduate teacher training courses. It was her first year in teaching. In Table II it can be seen that Participant D showed a positively significant change from pre to post on five concepts: feedback, openness, attending behavior, conflict resolution and self-disclosure.

Participant J was also a young inexperienced teacher who made some movement in the positive direction on the two concepts of natural consequences and children's misbehavior. Participant B responded significantly positively to the concepts of attending behavior and self-evaluation but responded significantly negative to the concepts, self-disclosure and goal setting. For Participant C there was a significant change in the positive direction in respect to the concept, attending behavior, but a negatively significant response to the risk taking concept. Participant E and G made no significant change on any of the concepts.

Significantly positive change to the concepts of learning about each other, conflict resolution and self-disclosure was made by Participant F. However, this same participant responded significantly negative to the concepts of problem solving, self-evaluation and goal setting. For Participant I there was a negatively significant change on the concepts of attending behavior and conflict resolution. Otherwise there were no changes.

In respect to the concepts it can be seen in Table III that the participants as a group made no significant change in respect to any of the concepts. However, in looking at Table II it should be noted that there were changes by individual participants to particular concepts: Feedback = 1+; natural consequences = 2—; 1+; learning about each other = 1—; 2+; children's misbehavior = 1+; problem solving = 2+; risk taking = 2+; openness = 1—; 2+; attending behavior = 2—; 3+; conflict resolution = 3—; 2+; self-evaluation = 2—; 1+; goal setting = 4—; self-disclosure = 2—; 2+; and listening = 1—.

Table I

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Individual Participants (A-E)
East Grand Forks In-Service Workshop

	Participants									
	A		B		C		D		E	
Concepts	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Feedback	5.875	6.000	4.000	3.875	5.125	6.000	4.625	6.375	4.375	5.500
Listening	5.875	6.000	3.875	4.750	5.875	5.125	6.625	6.500	4.625	5.875
Natural Consequences	7.000	5.250	4.000	4.250	5.375	4.750	4.375	3.375	5.875	5.875
Learning About Each Other	7.000	6.625	5.625	5.250	5.750	6.500	6.375	6.625	5.500	6.250
Children's Misbehavior	4.000	4.250	4.125	4.625	4.000	3.125	2.375	2.500	2.500	4.750
Problem Solving	6.625	5.875	3.750	4.375	4.875	4.500	2.875	5.625	5.500	3.875
Risk Taking	6.125	5.000	4.125	4.000	5.375	3.500	3.500	3.625	4.750	5.375
Openness	7.000	6.125	6.000	5.625	5.500	6.625	3.750	6.375	5.500	5.375
Attending Behavior	5.875	5.875	4.375	5.125	4.000	5.875	6.000	5.500	5.500	5.000
Conflict Resolution	7.000	5.000	4.125	4.000	5.375	5.125	2.500	5.275	4.625	5.125
Self-Evaluation	6.625	6.125	4.000	5.625	4.375	4.375	5.125	5.500	4.250	5.625
Goal Setting	7.000	5.875	4.500	4.000	4.375	4.375	6.500	6.375	4.750	5.250
Self-Disclosure	5.500	5.500	6.625	5.750	2.750	4.250	3.375	5.375	5.125	5.125

Table I (continued)

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Individual Participants (F-J)
East Grand Forks In-Service Workshop

	Participants									
	F		G		H		I		J	
Concepts	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Feedback	4.750	5.125	6.000	5.250	6.125	4.125	4.625	5.500	6.000	6.250
Listening	5.000	4.875	6.250	5.500	6.750	4.750	5.875	6.125	6.625	6.750
Natural Consequences	5.375	5.625	5.250	4.750	6.000	4.375	4.875	4.500	5.525	6.125
Learning About Each Other	4.000	5.500	5.750	6.375	6.500	4.250	5.875	6.000	6.500	6.625
Children's Misbehavior	3.875	4.000	5.750	4.000	4.750	5.125	4.875	4.750	2.000	4.125
Problem Solving	5.500	4.750	6.375	6.500	6.000	4.250	6.375	6.000	6.250	6.500
Risk Taking	4.875	5.000	4.875	5.875	6.000	4.750	5.375	5.625	4.250	5.750
Openness	5.875	5.625	5.125	5.375	6.000	5.000	6.000	5.500	6.375	6.375
Attending Behavior	5.625	5.250	4.625	5.500	6.125	4.375	5.750	4.750	5.625	5.875
Conflict Resolution	5.125	4.375	5.625	4.625	6.000	4.375	5.250	4.125	5.625	6.125
Self-Evaluation	6.000	5.250	6.250	5.375	6.250	4.125	4.375	4.625	6.000	6.250
Goal Setting	5.500	4.750	4.000	4.250	6.000	4.875	6.125	6.000	6.125	6.375
Self-Disclosure	4.000	5.125	6.375	3.875	6.625	4.375	6.000	5.750	5.500	6.500

Table II

T-tests for Participants on Concepts
East Grand Forks In-Service Workshop

Concepts	Participants A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
Feedback	.188	–1.000	1.842	3.888**	– .649	1.428	– .483	– 6.153	1.794	.588
Listening	.188	.303	– .941	–1.410	.422	.217	–2.045	–10.666**	.606	1.000
Natural Consequences	–9.333***	1.538	–1.470	–1.666	0.000	0.000	.967	– 8.666***	–1.153	2.500*
Learning About Each Other	– .416	– .810	3.00 *	–1.176	.555	4.615**	0.000	– 9.000***	.227	1.000
Children's Misbehavior	.250	1.526	1.636	.243	1.866	– .689	–1.702	.576	– .188	5.312**
Problem Solving	– .888	1.470	.697	2.716	–1.475	–2.400*	.476	– 4.827**	–1.304	.606
Risk Taking	–2.812	1.000	–9.444***	.285	.508	.227	1.000	– 7.692***	1.000	2.000
Openness	–1.944	–1.000	2.812*	3.559**	.175	2.000	.714	– 3.809**	–1.538	0.000
Attending Behavior	0.000	2.400*	4.684**	2.380*	– .784	–1.428	– .298	– 9.333***	–3.809**	.392
Conflict Resolution	–3.200*	–1.000	– .253	2.750*	0.000	3.000*	–2.089	– 8.666***	–3.750**	1.395
Self-Evaluation	–1.333	3.513**	0.000	0.000	2.037	–4.615**	.645	–12.000***	.476	1.000
Goal Setting	–3.913**	–2.666*	.833	.555	– .674	–2.400*	–1.076	– 9.000***	.357	1.410
Self-Disclosure	0.000	–3.888**	2.131	4.705**	0.000	5.000**	–1.276	– 9.000***	2.068	2.424

* = Significant at < .05 level.
** = Significant at < .01 level.
*** = Significant at < .001 level.

Table III

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Group
East Grand Forks In-Service Workshop

	Pre N = 10	Post N = 10	Two-Tailed Test (.05)
Concepts	X	$\bar{X}$	Significance
Feedback	5.150	5.400	–.6060 NS
Listening	5.738	5.625	–.6565 NS
Natural Consequences	5.365	4.886	1.5625 NS
Learning About Each Other	5.888	6.000	–.1600 NS
Children's Misbehavior	3.825	4.125	–1.1574 NS
Problem Solving	5.413	5.225	–.3778 NS
Attending Behavior	5.350	5.313	–.0490 NS
Openness	5.713	5.800	–.1374 NS
Risk Taking	4.925	4.850	–.7988 NS
Conflict Resolution	5.125	4.815	–.4917 NS
Self Evaluation	5.325	5.288	.4112 NS
Goal Setting	5.488	5.213	.5257 NS
Self Disclosure	5.188	5.163	–1.6141 NS

Addendum

In the fall, 1972, the author conducted an in-service workshop in Minnewaukan, North Dakota, as part of an ESEA Title III Project entitled "School-Home Program for Rural Handicapped". The participants were fourteen elementary school teachers and one superintendent. This in-service group was very similar to the East Grand Forks in-service workshop group on variables of length in teaching, degree status, grades taught and range of age of participants. The semantic differential was administered as a pre-post evaluative instrument.

The workshop was conducted for a total of thirty hours, as was the East Grand Forks workshop; however, rather than one three-hour session over ten weeks it was conducted in five six-hour sessions over a period of two and one-half weeks. The treatment was varied in that fewer concepts were presented and these concepts were studied in more depth. The Osseo material was used as it related to the concepts of listening, self-evaluation, learning about each other, self-disclosure, children's misbehavior, risktaking, openness, conflict resolution, and problem solving. However, the primary material used was the Self-Enhancing Education program (Randolph and Howe, 1966), see Appendix.

The pre-post test data of the Minnewaukan in-service workshop was compared with the East Grand Forks in-service workshop by the use of analysis of covariance. The comparison was made between the group scores for each concept, the results of which are shown in Table IV, Summary Table of Analysis of Covariance. This probability table shows that there were significantly different responses to six of the nine concepts by the two groups. (The mean responses for the individual participant to each concept for the Minnewaukan in-service workshop are given in Table V for the reader's information.)

Table IV

Summary Table of Analysis of Covariance for Concepts East Grand Forks and Minnewaukan In-Service Workshops

Concepts	Difference between Pre-Post Group Mean Scores East Grand Forks (N = 10)	Minnewaukan (N = 15)	F	p
Listening	–.113	.167	12.77	.01
Self-Evaluation	–.037	.517	3.30	NS
Learning About Each Other	–.112	.758	4.33	.05
Self-Disclosure	–.025	.024	.85	NS
Children's Misbehavior	.300	.300	.79	NS
Risktaking	–.075	1.100	5.62	.05
Problem Solving	–.188	.816	9.39	.01
Openness	–.087	.825	7.76	.05
Conflict Resolution	.310	.825	19.85	.001

Table V

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Individual Participants (A-E)
Minnewaukan In-Service Workshop

	Participants									
	A		B		C		D		E	
Concepts	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Listening	5.875	7.000	6.125	6.500	6.375	6.625	4.500	4.750	6.750	6.375
Self-Evaluation	5.375	6.875	5.500	5.000	6.250	6.750	4.500	4.250	4.125	4.875
Learning About Each Other	5.000	7.000	6.125	6.625	6.375	6.750	4.375	5.625	5.375	6.125
Self-Disclosure	5.125	6.750	4.500	2.125	6.500	6.125	3.875	4.875	4.750	7.000
Children's Misbehavior	2.625	3.250	4.625	5.000	5.625	3.750	4.375	4.250	3.500	4.500
Risktaking	2.250	5.750	4.250	4.875	5.375	4.250	4.250	4.375	5.000	4.750
Problem Solving	6.250	6.875	6.000	6.500	6.500	6.875	4.125	4.250	5.625	5.750
Openness	6.125	7.000	6.250	6.375	5.750	6.250	4.375	5.125	5.500	6.500
Conflict Resolution	7.000	6.875	6.250	7.000	4.625	5.125	3.500	4.125	4.500	6.000

Table V (continued)

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Individual Participants (F-J)
Minnewaukan In-Service Workshop

	Participants									
	F		G		H		I		J	
Concepts	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Listening	6.250	5.875	6.000	6.125	6.625	6.500	7.000	6.875	6.125	6.250
Self-Evaluation	4.750	5.500	5.750	7.000	4.250	5.625	4.875	5.375	6.000	5.750
Learning About Each Other	5.125	6.250	4.750	7.000	6.375	7.000	6.250	4.250	4.875	6.875
Self-Disclosure	4.000	5.500	7.000	7.000	3.750	4.000	3.750	3.875	4.375	4.750
Children's Misbehavior	3.250	3.250	4.500	6.250	5.000	4.500	5.125	6.250	3.750	5.500
Risktaking	4.750	4.750	4.250	6.500	3.875	5.000	5.125	5.875	3.375	6.000
Problem Solving	4.125	5.125	5.000	7.000	4.875	6.250	6.625	5.750	4.625	6.875
Openness	5.500	5.500	4.875	7.000	5.375	6.125	4.750	5.000	4.125	6.875
Conflict Resolution	4.375	6.000	4.000	6.500	4.125	5.625	4.750	6.000	4.750	6.500

Table V (continued)

Semantic Differential
Pre-Post Concept Mean Scores for Individual Participants (K-O)
Minnewaukan In-Service Workshop

	Participants									
	K		L		M		N		O	
Concepts	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Listening	6.000	6.500	6.750	6.625	6.750	7.000	5.125	6.875	6.000	4.875
Self-Evaluation	5.125	6.125	5.750	5.250	6.625	6.625	5.750	6.375	4.500	5.500
Learning About Each Other	6.125	6.500	6.000	7.000	6.625	7.000	6.125	6.625	4.750	5.000
Self-Disclosure	5.000	6.375	5.125	4.000	6.625	7.000	6.000	6.875	6.250	5.000
Children's Misbehavior	5.500	3.625	6.125	6.000	4.000	5.250	3.625	4.125	5.000	5.625
Risktaking	6.000	6.000	2.125	5.375	5.500	7.000	4.750	6.125	4.000	4.750
Problem Solving	5.000	6.000	4.000	4.125	5.625	6.875	3.750	6.625	5.000	4.500
Openness	5.625	6.000	4.500	6.000	7.000	7.000	5.625	7.000	4.750	4.750
Conflict Resolution	5.375	6.000	5.625	4.875	5.750	5.000	4.000	5.500	4.125	4.000

There was a significant difference at the .001 level between the pre-post group means for the concept, conflict resolution. For the concepts, listening and problem-solving, there was a significant difference at the .01 level. A significant difference at the .05 level was found for the concepts, learning about each other, risk taking and openness. A non-significant difference was found for the concepts, self-evaluation, self-disclosure and children's misbehavior.

It would seem reasonable to conclude that the Self-Enhancing Education material and the Osseo material combined into one presentation was a treatment which brought about more positive response on the post administration of the semantic differential than the Osseo material alone. It would also seem feasible that the presentation and practice in depth of fewer concepts, the procedure used in the Minnewaukan workshop, may be a factor in the positive results. In the East Grand Forks workshop thirteen concepts were presented in the thirty-hour workshop while in the Minnewaukan workshop nine concepts were presented in the same length of time.

It might also be possible that more positive response to the particular human relations skills material presented in these two workshops is obtained when given over a more condensed time span. It might be that five six-hour sessions over a two and one-half week period is more conducive to positive results than ten three-hour sessions spread over ten weeks. Another factor which may have been conducive to the difference in response of these two groups is that the first workshop was conducted in the spring of the year, February 28-May 1; while the second workshop was conducted during the fall in November.

The timing of in-service might be more appropriate if it occurs in the fall of the year enabling the teachers to have the remainder of the school year to work with the skills with the counselor serving as their consultant.

Recommendations

Consideration should be given by all states to requiring a course in human relations skills of teachers-in training much like the requirement in Minnesota which goes into effect July 1, 1973. This training, however, would not eliminate the need for guidance personnel to conduct in-service with their teachers on a regular basis.

More experimentation should be conducted with the variables of amount of material covered, time of year of workshop and time span of presentation.

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APPENDIX

SELF-ENHANCEMENT EDUCATION*

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Self-Enhancement Education is a term with which you are probably developing a hearing recognition. A brief awareness orientation was given at our NDPGA Convention in February; however, a follow-up and further exploration may be helpful in giving you additional information as to just what Self-Enhancement is really all about.

Inherent in Self-Enhancement Education (SEE) is the belief that children learn as much from *how* they are taught as from *what* they are taught. This *how* process had its beginning in 1957 in the San Cupertino school district in California. The initiating circumstance was the confrontation of a guidance counselor by a classroom teacher. This teacher perceived her major teaching problem in this way. "My twenty-six 7th grade students have been grouped together because they are at least two years below grade level in achievement in their basic skills. No matter how I plan the lessons, all I get from them is, 'Aw, do we have to do this?' 'Is this 7th grade material?' 'Aw, this is too easy!,' etc."

The counselor, having no really effective answers to this frequent teacher complaint, decided to enter the classroom, with the teacher, and confront the students with the problem. In effect, he said, "You don't seem to enjoy school, and your teacher doesn't enjoy teaching you. Can we talk about this problem?" At first, the students seemed shocked and mistrustful, but gradually the confrontation activated voluminous feedback. Such statements as, "We can't trust you. If we tell you how we feel you will take it out on us with grades," began to flow from the students. "I hate school." The counselor reflected. "It's almost more than you can stand." "I hate reading." . . . "It's the worst subject of all for you." "Teachers boss too much." . . . "Always telling you what to do." "Teachers don't listen to us." . . . "They really don't seem to care what you are thinking and feeling." The counselor listened and in each individual case reflected back the feelings he thought he was hearing. The significant data that first poured forth, as the students began to risk themselves, was primarily negative. It soon became apparent that their negative feelings

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were interwoven with their own negative feelings about themselves. Students stated such feelings as, "I'm a dumbbell." "I can't do it, so why try?" "I'm a failure." It became painfully clear, as a result of the confrontation and the feedback, that built into these children was a pervading sense of low self-esteem. The counselor was able to clarify for the children that lack of confidence in self, low self-esteem, was the major obstacle to their successful learning; and it was agreed that it would have to be overcome if learning at school was to be effective.

Since the major problem was such a pervading one its solution could not be effected by any single endeavor. The counselor encouraged the teacher and her class to become involved in a semester's search for solutions to the dilemma, and several times a week the counselor came into the classroom to work with them. Once the students had openly expressed their negative feelings they began to be able to differentiate out the specific organizational and learning problems and then to find solutions. The point must be emphasized that the main reason that the counselor, teacher and students were successful in working in this way was the counselor's ability to actively listen to the children and to reflectively send back to them what he was hearing. He did not judge the children, good or bad, right or wrong, but accepted what they said as honest expressions of their feelings. As the semester unfolded the students considered such questions as, "What is expected of us? What chance have we of meeting these expectations? How can we study this subject in more interesting and satisfying ways? What materials are available to us? How can we take charge of ourselves so that the teacher does not have to boss us so much? How can we behave in more socially acceptable ways? How can members of our class be helped to manage themselves or self-discipline themselves?"

This one semester of work with this class of under-achieving 7th graders led to a nine year period of concentration in which counselors and teachers went into classrooms in each of the 38 schools in the San Cupertino school district and worked in this way with the students. From this work evolved SEE, which is a compilation of twelve processes that have developed as adults and children together confronted problems and perceived possible solutions, the major process of which is the working with children as has been described above. Through these twelve specific processes children are guided to become more involved in their own education and development than they have ever been before.

These processes have been briefly described as follows by Randolph and Howe.[1]

1. *Problem solving:* to involve student and teacher in differentiating out problems, confronting them, and developing personal responsibility for carrying out solutions satisfactory to the participants; to resolve conflict and increase acceptance.
2. *Self-management:* to center management within each self; to overcome the effects of imposition and control; to exercise the innate power of each person to be in charge of self.
3. *Changing negative reflections to positive images:* to overcome the perception children have of adults seeing children as unworthy, weak, and inadequate.
4. *Building bonds of trust:* to make communication clear and congruent by daring to risk the confrontations of feelings.
5. *Setting limits and expectations:* to define specific intellectual areas within which children can feel safe and free to explore, and to set forth expectations that are stable and congruently clarified.
6. *Freeing and channeling energy:* to reduce the fears of disapproval and failure that "lock in" energy or cause it to be dissipated in unproductive ways, and thus to free children's energy and direct it into socially accepted channels.
7. *Overcoming unproductive repetitive behavior:* to interrupt and break those patterns that interfere with learning opportunities.
8. *Changing tattling to reporting:* to help children assume social responsibility and come to understand the difference between tattling and reporting.
9. *Developing physical competencies:* to enable children to overcome the low self-esteem that results from their concern about their physical adequacy.
10. *Making success inevitable:* to produce feelings of adequacy in the children by successive academic achievements.
11. *Self-evaluation:* to overcome the children's impression that evaluation of them is centered primarily in the

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[1] *Norma Randolph and William Howe. Self-Enhancing Education. Palo Alto, California: Educational Development Corporation, 1966.*

adults, forcing the children to work for adult approval rather than for real self-improvement.

12. *Breaking curriculum barriers:* to enable children to move through curricular experiences at a rate compatible with their own abilities.

SEE is introduced into an elementary school system by means of workshops for teachers and parents. In the initial introductory stage a workshop is set up for the teachers, the thought being that we can not teach SEE to children until we teach it to those who teach the children. As teachers introduce SEE in their classrooms it is timely to invite the parents of the children to participate in weekly meetings where they can also be trained. Ideally, and we hope in time to bring this about, SEE should be taught in the undergraduate teacher training preparation program. However, until such can be brought about we must use the inservice workshop route.

Last June SEE was introduced into North Dakota by a workshop sponsored by the State Department through the leadership of Glenn Dolan. Approximately twenty people were given the initial course, an awareness of what SEE is about, by Norma Randolph, who is the leader in this process. These twenty people have been using SEE in their work settings during the year. Currently, we have two Title III projects in the state devoted to SEE, one at Valley City and the other at Grand Forks.

SEE is a process means through which teachers and parents can be given an awareness of the guidance concepts we counselors foster. Combining the skills of the successful teacher with the techniques that come from guidance training and experience is to synthesize both guidance principles and curriculum offerings into unified, nurturing classroom learning opportunities.

AFFECTIVE EDUCATION TRAINING FOR TEACHERS AND PUPIL FEEDBACK

Paul H. Boerger, David G. Sandness*

Background

The importance of the pupil-teacher relationship in the learning process cannot be stressed enough. Various attempts at helping teachers increase their effectiveness in affective education and teacher-pupil relationships have been reported (Brenner, 1971; Schmuck, 1968; Knoblock and Goldstein 1971; Peterson and Marshall, 1972; Trymier, 1970).

Evalution of affective training programs typically relies mainly on teachers' self-report, and in some cases, on observers ratings. Various authors have recommended pupil feedback as an obvious, if potentially demanding, criterion (Amatora, 1954; Bryan, 1958; Fox, Luszki, and Schmuck, 1966; Gray, 1970; Johnson, 1972), but to the extent that pupil feedback methods have been developed, they have been used largely as informal classroom tools by individual teachers, not as criteria for evaluating in-service programs.

An in-service course on communication and teacher-pupil relationships, by definition, implies recognition of pupil perception and feeling as an important factor in assessing the classroom processes aimed at his welfare and development. The present study was planned to evaluate an in-service course by gathering, in addition to teacher responses on an informal questionnaire at the end of training, pupil feedback at different times during the school year in which the teacher received training.

The In-service Course

The course, "Classroom Communication and Guidance," was developed in a summer (1971) workshop by a local district team of teachers, counselors, and psychologists. Focusing on techniques and skills for fostering communication, group interaction, and affective growth experiences, the course included exercises from Achievement Motivation Programs (AMP), Teacher Effectiveness Training (TET, Gordon, 1970), and formal and informal behavior modification theory. (See appendix for an outline of activities.)

The course was conducted as twelve, two-hour after-school sessions, with most sessions involving some theory presentation, simulation activities, and group discussion. Readings, classroom experiments, and other between-session activities were encouraged but were left optional. In general, little was required of participants beyond session attendance. Eight leaders, participants in the summer workshop, paired into four leader-coleader teams and conducted four groups each semester or a total of eight groups during the 1971-72 school year.

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*Drs. Boerger and Sandness are school psychologists for Independent School District No. 279, Osseo, Minnesota. This project was funded out of Title III monies under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Of the 103 teachers who registered for the course, 41, representing the majority of teachers at two schools, were selected to participate during the first semester. Forty-three, representing the majority of teachers at two other schools, were selected to participate second semester, and the remaining 19 from four other schools to wait until the following year. The 103 teachers who registered represented almost one-third of the elementary teachers in the suburban Minneapolis district where the course was conducted.

Data Collection

Teacher evaluations of the course were obtained with an informal two-page questionnaire (similar to that used in TET) administered in the final session. Among other questions, the teachers were asked: How do you feel about the course in general (Excellent, Good, Fair, or Poor)? What changes, if any, have occurred in your behavior as a result of this course? What related changes, if any, have occurred in your students' behavior?

Pupil responses were obtained on three occasions during the school year — September, January, and May — when teacher groups were not in progress. A two-part inventory devised by the authors was administered on each occasion to sixty-two classroom groups of twelve pupils each. The twelve pupils were selected randomly at the beginning of the year from the class list of each teacher in grades 3-6 who had registered for the course, all of whom had agreed to participate in this phase of the evaluation. An average of 704 pupils — of the potential 744 — were actually present to participate on the three testing occasions. Sampling was limited to the upper four grades to assure minimal reading ability of subjects. Of the sixty-two teachers represented in the evaluation with pupils, 24 were from the first semester group (Experimental I), 19 from the second semester group (Experimental II), and 19 were waiting to take the course the following year (Control). The number of teachers at each grade level ranged from 11 (grade six) to 21 (grade five).

Part I of the pupil inventory, "What Would Your Teacher Do?," consisted of 28 "typical incident" times, each describing a classroom situation or problem and asking the pupil to select one of two teacher behaviors which he thought closest to describing his teacher. According to the judgment of course leaders, one response in each pair represented the use of a communication skill which might be appropriate to the incident posed. The alternative response was judged to represent a more typical teacher reaction, less consistent with communication and guidance theory. Each of the 28 items was written for and assigned — according to the judgment of course leaders — to one of four scales representing the skills given primary attention in the course, namely, Listening, Disclosure, Problem-solving, and Consequating (seven items each).

The 28 items of Part I were thus aimed at assessing the extent to which the teacher was perceived as characteristically doing the following:

1. *Listening:* Accepting feelings and ideas of pupils, particularly when these imply resistance to or discrepancy with typical adult expectations, as contrasted with correcting, giving a solution, reassuring, moralizing, etc.

Example: When the class was discussing the school's dress code, a girl said, "Our principal is a real dope; he makes so many stupid rules." Would your teacher say . . . "It's hard for you to understand why the principal tells you that you can't do so many things," or would your teacher say, "You might as well learn to live with rules, because you're going to have them all your life"?

2. *Disclosure:* Revealing his/her own feelings and ideas in a pupil-respecting way, particularly when confronted with unacceptable behavior, as contrasted with verbal "put-downs," labeling, moralizing, threats, commands, etc.

Example: John handed in a paper that was unusually messy and almost impossible to read. Would your teacher say . . . "Am I supposed to be able to read this? This is one of the messiest papers I've ever seen;" or would your teacher say . . . "Your paper may have some good ideas on it, John, but it's too hard for me to read"?

3. *Problem-solving:* Involving pupils in the objective analysis of behavioral problems and the search for mutually satisfying solutions, as contrasted with the use of authoritarian or teacher-centered methods.

Example: After one class became very noisy during their break, the teacher explained the importance of being reasonably quiet when the teacher was not in the classroom. This morning, however, the teacher returned to the classroom to find erasers being thrown and children yelling and running about. Would your teacher . . . be disappointed and angry with the class, but ask the class for their ideas in solving the problem; or would your teacher . . . scold the class and suggest that next time the punishment would be more unpleasant?

4. *Consequating:* Relying primarily on positive or rewarding consequences to accelerate desirable behavior, and secondarily on aversive consequences to decelerate the undesirable, and in both cases maintaining respect for the pupil, as contrasted with labeling, "put-downs," threats, etc.

Example: Jim is behind in his work because he finds it more fun to goof-off with his friends than to do his assignments. Would your teacher say . . . "You can spend a few minutes talking with your friends *if* you complete this assignment first;" or would your teacher say . . . "If you don't get to work right now, you're going to be in real trouble"?

Part II of the inventory, "Myself, My Classmates, and My Teacher," asked the pupil to rate himself, his eleven peer respondents, and his teacher on a scale of 1 to 5 according to the number of characteristics he liked about each. For this scale, a pictorial representation which verbally might be translated to read from (1) "I don't like anything about this person," to (5) "I like everything about this person" was used (see Fox, Luszki, and Schmuck, p. 94). Strictly speaking, these more global, affective variables were not course objectives but their relationship to the skill scales of Part I was of interest.

In testing, each pupil followed a mimeographed form of the items in Part I while an audiotaped version was manually synchronized with pupil response rate. The order of items in Part I was re-scrambled before the January and May administrations; otherwise, all procedures and materials for the three testing occasions were identical. The three administrations were conducted by the same individual (a substitute teacher) outside the regular classroom. Pupils were assured of anonymity.

Scoring of Part I consisted of determining the percentage of pupils crediting the teacher with the preferred response for each of the 28 items and averaging this percentage over the seven items of each scale. Thus, a single score or percentage was obtained for each teacher for each of the four skill scales. Part II was scored by averaging the 12 pupils' ratings of self, classmates (requiring prior averaging of each pupil's ratings of his eleven peer respondents), and teacher.

Results

Teacher questionnaire

In general, a positive feeling toward the course was expressed, with more than half (61%) of the respondents rating it as "good" and another 20 percent rating it as "excellent." Changes which the teachers reported in themselves, among others, were increased sensitivity to pupil feelings (reported by the majority), a more positive approach to discipline, and an increased effort to involve pupils in social or behavioral problem-solving. At the time of course completion, less than half of the teachers were able to report any reciprocal changes in pupil behavior.

Pupil inventory

Pupil responses for the three groups of teachers — those who took the course first semester (Experimental I), those who took it second semester (Experimental II), and those who registered but whose participation was postponed (Control) — are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for Experimental and Control Groups: Parts I & II

	Testing Dates					
	September		January		May	
Group	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Part I: Listening						
Experimental I	28.6	7.6	24.0	7.8	22.8^{a}	7.2
Experimental II	26.2	6.2	21.7	8.2	21.5	5.2
Control	28.8	9.2	20.9	6.3	18.6^{b}	5.2
Part I: Disclosure						
Experimental I	39.9	10.8	39.3	9.0	40.9	9.6
Experimental II	40.3	9.2	35.3	7.8	36.3	10.5
Control	40.2	10.8	40.3	11.7	38.0	10.4
Part I: Problem-solving						
Experimental I	42.4	13.6	41.3	16.5	36.1	15.2
Experimental II	46.2	12.3	40.0	11.11	37.4	11.5
Control	49.1	13.6	41.2	16.4	38.2	14.5
Part I: Consequating						
Experimental I	57.0^{c}	9.1	55.7^{a}	10.2	53.4^{a}	11.1
Experimental II	60.0	6.5	57.3	7.8	52.6^{a}	9.7
Control	64.5^{d}	10.2	62.3^{b}	9.5	60.6^{b}	11.8
Part II: Self						
Experimental I	4.36	.31	4.21	.43	4.31	.41
Experimental II	4.47	.24	4.44	.41	4.35	.40
Control	4.46	.27	4.25	.31	4.38	.30

		Part II: Teacher				
Experimental I	4.15[a]	.45	4.02	.58	3.95	.76
Experimental II	4.46[b]	.44	4.24	.69	4.11	.64
Control	4.44[b]	.43	4.24	.46	4.10	.63
		Part III: Peers				
Experimental I	3.14	.37	2.91	.35	2.95	.40
Experimental II	3.18	.25	3.01	.20	3.04	.32
Control	3.26	.35	3.07	.35	3.11	.43

Note — Scores for Part I represent the average percentage of pupils crediting teachers with preferred responses. Scores for Part II represent average ratings on a scale of 1 (low) to 5 (high). Adscripted letter pairs denote significantly different group means within categories on a 2-tailed *t* test.

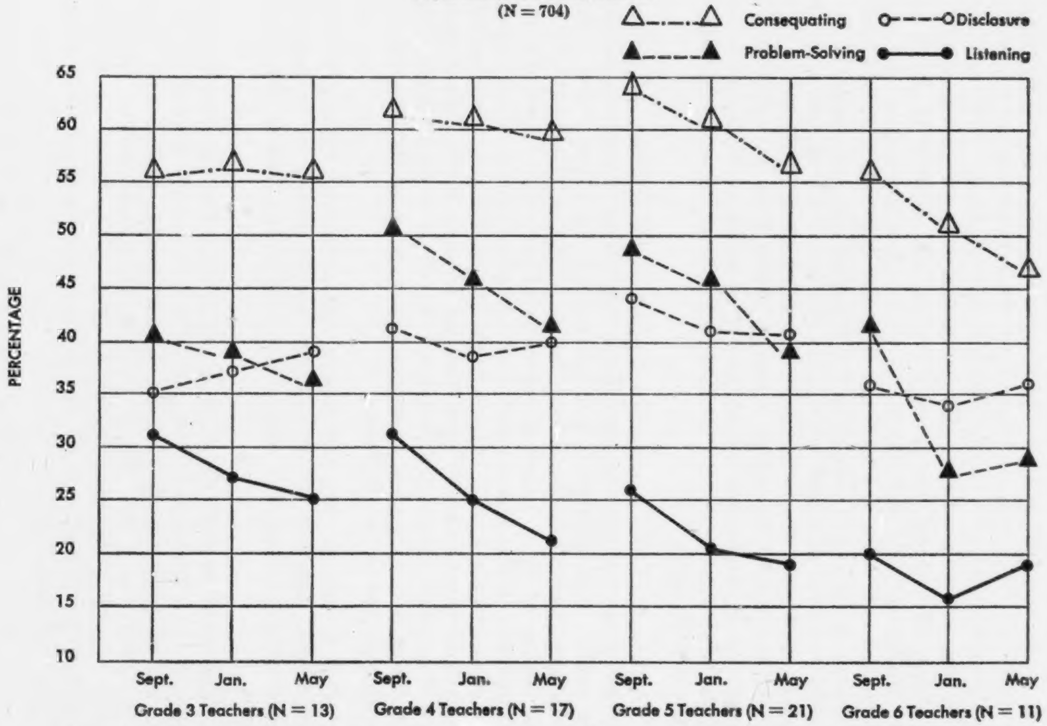
[ab] $p<.05$
[cd] $p<.02$

The group scores (averaged percentages indicating preferred responses) appear relatively consistent within categories. Their consistency may attest to at least some degree of external test reliability, although for most scales, it negates hypothesized differences between teachers who took the course and those who did not. Test-retest correlations of September and January scores for the 38 teachers not involved in the course during this interval range from .52 to .74 on the seven scales. These coefficients are probably suppressed to some extent by changes in pupil perception of teachers during the four-month interval. With the possible exception of the Disclosure skill, the responses tended to credit teachers with higher skill ratings at the beginning of the year (i.e., 3-4 weeks after school had begun) than at midyear, and with higher ratings at midyear than in May. (See Figure 1.) Pupil ratings of themselves ("number of things you like about yourself") and of their peers appeared relatively constant over the year, while general ratings of liking for the teacher suggested, again, a slight decline as the year progressed. Perhaps the expectations of pupils for their teachers was high at the beginning of the schoolyear, and that regard for teachers lessened as the year continued.

Inter-item correlations of the skill scales of Part I, as based on midyear testing, suggested a minimum of internal scale reliability. All items correlated positively with their respective derived scale scores, in most cases quite significantly, but some contributed little to the scale score and showed little or no relation to other items of the same scale. In sum, the four skill scales are far from "pure" in internal consistency.

The equally critical question of validity — the extent to which scores actually represent the behaviors denoted by scale

Figure 1
Pupils Rating of Teacher Behavior
(N = 704)



Percentage of pupils crediting teachers with use of communicating and guidance skills as inventoried at three times during the school year. Parentheses after grade designation show number of teachers evaluated; total N of 62 teachers includes 43 course participants. Total pupil N averaged 704 for each testing date.

names and definitions — must remain in the domain of subjective opinion. A survey was conducted after the May testing to determine the degree to which teachers in the study would agree with course leaders as to the preferred responses on the 28 items of Part I. (This was the teachers' first knowledge of specific inventory content.) Agreement averaged 88 percent for teachers who had taken the course (Experimental I and Experimental II groups), 82 percent for those who had not (Control). Even in the former group, agreement on individual items ranged from 61 to 100 percent and suggested that the instrument would bear revision if its results were to have maximum face validity for purposes of teacher self-appraisal. For purposes of course evaluation, however, the percentage scores of Part I appear to represent the extent to which teachers were seen as using those responses which course leaders and most teachers would consider as the preferred response (closest to the ideal) among the alternatives presented.

Although Table I suggests a general consistency of scores across groups, there are significant exceptions. Teachers taking the course first semester, but not second semester, were rated as better listeners at the end of the year than teachers not taking the course at all and the general trend for both Experimental groups was in the desired direction (these groups scoring higher than Control teachers). It is possible that as the year progressed, reciprocal teacher-pupil expectancies became more entrenched, and change on the part of teachers therefore more difficult. The results in listening seem to argue for scheduling the present inservice course in the fall only.

The results on the Disclosure items showed no significant differences between groups. These scores appeared to remain more stable through the schoolyear than in the case of the other skills.

The results on the Problem-solving items also showed no significant differences. However, these scores clearly decline as the schoolyear progresses, with the Experimental groups and Control group losing 6.3, 8.8, and 10.9 percentage points, respectively, from September through May. The trend is in the hypothesized direction with the teachers taking the course early in the year tending to lose least.

The results on Consequating similarly showed no course effect. The midyear teachers began the course with a significant advantage over the Experimental I group and maintained this advantage through the year. This advantage also became significant over Experimental II in May, when the Experimental

II teachers had just completed the course. The results in the case of Consequating are clearly not in the desired direction.

With regard to initial group equivalence, the "waiting" teachers (Control) received the highest September ratings in three of the four skill areas, significantly so in the case of Consequating. The Experimental I group, conversely, received the lowest September ratings on six of the seven variables of the entire inventory, with two of these deficits being statistically significant. At year's end, the latter group was rated lowest in only four of the seven variables, and highest on two (the superiority in Listening being significant). In addition, the significant September deficit of the Experimental I group in the area of general teacher rating had been eliminated in both January and May testings. There appears, in this perspective, some support for the hypothesis that the course was a constructive influence, particularly in the case of those teachers who participated in the first half of the school year.

Of the four skills, as they were defined by the inventory, Listening was consistently seen by pupils as used least, Consequating as used most. Teachers differed most, according to pupil responses, in their use of Problem-solving, with individual scores (average proportion of pupils crediting the teacher with the preferred response on seven items) ranging from 13 to 77 per cent over the three testing occasions. As contrasted with the use of Listening (on which teachers scores ranged from 6 to 45 per cent), the involvement of pupils in solving classroom problems appeared to vary widely from teacher to teacher.

Visual inspection of inter-scale correlations for all 62 teachers over the three testing occasions suggested no reliable relationships between pupil self-ratings and other variables except for a mild ($r=.30$, $p<.03$) relationship with Listening early in the year. It would appear that in September (when teachers were seen as doing their best listening), there was some tendency for the "listened-to" pupil to report that he liked himself more. The relatively low Listening scores (consistently the lowest of the four skills), plus their tendency to fade slightly as the school-year progressed, could raise the question of what relationships would appear if Listening were a high-priority, time-stable teacher behavior. With the exception in the case of Listening, the extent to which the pupil claimed he liked himself appeared to have no distinguishable relationship with the skill scores.

Peer-ratings similarly tended to be orthogonal to ratings of teachers' skills. The exception here was a mild relationship with teacher-ratings in September (r = .31) and January (r = .29), suggesting that for at least the first half of the school year, a pupil who liked his teacher tended also to like his peers, or vice versa.

Pupils' teacher-ratings tended to be correlated with their ratings of the teacher's use of Disclosure, Problem-solving, and Consequating skills (r's ranging from .39 to .70, all significant beyond .005), but not with Listening. In other words, the one skill on which course participation seemed to have some effect (Listening) was the only skill which appeared unrelated to the pupils' opinion of the teachers. (The "listened-to" pupil tended to like himself more than his teacher.) The problem-solving and particularly the consequating teachers, in the positive sense of the inventory, were popular with pupils, and particularly so as the year progressed (and, as use of listening declined).

Summary and Conclusions

A 12-week, 24-hour course in classroom communication and guidance, organized and conducted by local district personnel, was favorably accepted by most of the 80 participating teachers according to their anonymous self-report. The most frequently reported change which the teachers saw in themselves, among others, was increased sensitivity (or listening) to pupil feelings.

Analysis of responses on an inventory of pupil's perceptions of teacher behavior offered some support for the teachers' impressions of change in the area of listening. By the end of the year, pupils of teachers who had taken the course first semester saw these teachers doing more listening than did pupils of teachers who had not taken the course at all. Or in terms of what appears to be a normal regression of teacher listening activity over the school year (according to pupil responses), the teachers participating in the fall were credited with less diminution than the control teachers.

However, on three of the four skills comprising the central thrust of the course, the participating teachers were rated little or no differently than non-participating teachers. In terms of pupil perception little or no evidence was found that the course was effective in increasing teacher openness (Disclosure), use of pupils in solving classroom problems (Problem-Solving), and us of positive reinforcement and logical/natural consequences (Consequating).

Several tentative observations of general interest were drawn from analysis of pupil responses over the three testing occasions.

While teachers were seen as remaining relatively stable throughout the year in their ability to disclose their own feelings (Disclosure), other interpersonal skills (Listening, Problem-solving, and Consequating) were seen as being used most at the beginning of the year and with decreasing frequency from that point. In general, the results suggest that pupils' evaluation and regard for teachers is highest at the year's beginning, and lessens as the year continues.

Three of the skills (skills on which the course had little or no effect) were correlated with pupils' general rating of teachers; pupils claimed to like teachers more when the teachers were accorded higher use of Consequating, Problem-solving, and Disclosure behaviors, in that order. Within the limitations of the inventory, it would seem that pupils placed their priority on the teachers who, in their view, 1) relied on positive consequating for desirable behavior rather than punishment or scolding for undesirable behavior, 2) approached interpersonal and classroom problems with an objective "how can we solve this problem together" attitude rather than unilaterally handing down decisions, and 3) disclosed their feelings and frustrations without impugning, blaming, threatening, etc. These results are in keeping with general child guidance theory, as well as with current managerial theory pertaining to employer-employee relationships (Kolasa, Chapter 8).

Although the experimental nature of the pupil inventory, the use of volunteers in determining the teacher sample, and particularly, the varying characteristics of the course itself across leaders and sessions are among the factors limiting the generalizability of results, the present evaluation appears to offer both encouragement and warning for in-service programs aimed at helping teachers in the area of communication and guidance.

Three immediate possibilities for improvement appear for the course studied here. With some notable exceptions, teachers' evaluative comments indicated a desire for more involvement in determining course goals and the methods used to attain them. They expressed particular interest in classroom-relevant experiences, a need which the pupils' data seems to confirm. Perhaps less emphasis should be given to the amount of time spent in group training or discussions and more to individually determined activities which might involve the training group but might also center on classroom experimentation.

Secondly, in addition to the four goals evaluated here, the present course included goals related to building interpersonal trust among group members, process observation, developmental guidance activities, and other goals which varied somewhat from group to group. To the extent that this was an exploratory approach it may have given cursive attention to numerous goals at the expense of in-depth attention to a few. In this respect, the authors' impression, and that of numerous teachers, that the course devoted more time and effort to listening than any other objective would suggest that skills other than listening could be affected if given more careful attention.

Thirdly, the present course made little provision for feedback to participants regarding their status and growth in the skill areas. The results of the pupil assessment, for example, were not available to participants at the time they were current because of the structure of the present evaluation.[2] The on-going process of teacher self-appraisal and the various ways by which it could identify goals and facilitate teacher-pupil relationships seem worthy of investigation.

Although these avenues of course improvement were largely suggested by the subjective experience of course leaders, the use of controlled, systematic pupil feedback gave objective confirmation and an enriched data base for future planning.

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[2] The computer print-outs of each teacher's pupil inventory results for the three testing occasions were mailed — with normative data and graphs for personal charting — to the respective teachers following the completion of this study.

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CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION AND GUIDANCE

An Inservice Course in Affective Education for Elementary Teachers

OUTLINE OF ACTIVITIES

UNIT I: BUILDING GROUP COHESION

Session One: Learning about Each Other

1. Develop awareness of the background, experience, and feelings of other group members by listening to each tell about himself in four separate exercises
2. Focus attention on positive personal experiences

Session Two: Strengths Analysis and Goal Setting

1. Continue focus on positive personal experiences by asking participants to list a variety of successes from the past and conditions contributing to each
2. Give one another current feedback in the form of a written list of strengths as identfiied by the group
3. Increase skill in communication and accepting positive feedback by sharing strengths individually
4. Optional: Increase self-awareness of volunteers who ask the group, "What do you see as preventing me from making full use of my strengths?"
5. Discuss and practice setting personal goals according to suggested criteria of Achievement Motivation Programs

UNIT II: COMMUNICATING WITH STUDENTS

Session Three: Attending Behavior

1. Overview of the unit through a diagrammatic presentation
2. Identify typical response categories to other-owned problems and their common risks
3. Discuss the responses subsumed under "attending," emphasizing the reflective or "active listening" response
4. Briefly practice reflective listening

Session Four: More Listening

1. Develop a list of necessary conditions and common errors in listening
2. Listen to an adult reflecting to a child (tape)
3. Practice reflecting in role-playing

Session Five: Disclosure

1. Identify categories of responses typically used in lieu of disclosure skills
2. Discuss the disclosure model and illustrate its application to a classroom situation
3. Practice formulating disclosure messages for three additional classroom situations

Session Six: Conflict-resolution

1. Develop a list of desirable conditions and common errors in disclosure
2. Compare positive and negative disclosure
3. Individually practice disclosure with a teacher-owned problem
4. Discuss the six steps of conflict resolution
5. Use the six steps in role-playing at least one conflict-of-need situation

Session Seven: More Practice

1. Practice conflict-resolution skills in role-playing
2. Optional: Practice reflective listening, contrasting it with "typical" responses
3. Identify current "both-owned" classroom problems requiring special attention (to be used in individual behavior modification projects)

UNIT III: SYSTEMATIC CONSEQUATING AND CONTINGENCY MANAGEMENT

Session Eight: Principles of Behavior Modification

1. Discuss the relationship of communication skills to principles of consequating and behavior modification, including the concept of needs, reinforcement, and "mistaken goals"
2. Discuss how inappropriate use of communication skills can contribute to "mistaken goals"
3. Discuss the concepts of informal consequating, including "natural" and "logical" approaches, and potential application to problems identified in Session Seven
4. Discuss formal consequating procedures of pinpointing and recording and begin planning of individual projects with special problems

Session Nine: Initiating Behavior Modification Projects

1. Review examples of selected case studies involving formal behavior modification techniques
2. Share between-session experiences in collecting baseline data
3. Review procedures and guidelines for plan implementation
4. Formalize individual project plans

UNIT IV: CLASSROOM GROUP TECHNIQUES

Session Ten: Developmental Guidance Units and Group Meetings

1. Share progress reports on behavior modification projects
2. Discuss the rationale, scope, and format of several developmental guidance programs
3. Discuss five types of group meetings
4. Observe and individually experiment with at least one group guidance activity

Session Eleven: Process Observation and Assessment

1. Share experiences with group guidance activities
2. Discuss methods and goals of process observation
3. Experiment with process observation in a group exercise
4. Discuss methods and instruments for assessing classroom processes

Session Twelve: Open/Evaluation

1. Share experiences with goal-attainment and classroom process assessment
2. Complete any unfinished activities
3. Complete individual evaluations of the course

APPENDIX

Part I

What Would Your Teacher Do?

1. Bob is usually too afraid to speak in class, but today he knew an answer and give it correctly.

   Would your teacher say . . .

   a. ______ "I like the answer you gave to my question."

   Or would your teacher say . . .

   b. ______ "See, I told you that you are smart enough to get things right. Why don't you answer more often?"

2. John handed in a paper that was unusually messy and almost impossible to read.

   Would your teacher say . . .

   a. ______ "Am I supposed to be able to read this? This is one of the messiest papers I've ever seen."

   Or would your teacher say . . .

   b. ______ "Your paper may have some good ideas on it, John, but it's too hard for me to read."

3. After one class became very noisy during their break, the teacher explained to them that it was important to be reasonably quiet during the mid-morning break when the teacher was not in the classroom. This morning, however, the teacher returned to the classroom to find erasers being thrown and children yelling and running about.

   Would your teacher . . .

   a. ______ Be disappointed and angry with the class, but ask the class for their ideas in solving the problem.

   Or would your teacher . . .

   b. ______ Scold the class and suggest that next time the punishment would be more unpleasant.

4. The teacher's aide has reported to your teacher that Butch, who is sometimes noisy, has been the best-behaved student in the lunchroom this week.

   Would your teacher say . . .

   a. ______ "Why can't the rest of you behave like Butch?"

   Or would your teacher say . . .

   b. ______ "I was really pleased to hear that, Butch."

5. After the teacher has explained the game a class was to play, a boy said, "I don't like this game. It's so stupid."

   Would your teacher say . . .

   a. ______ "How can you say that before you even try it?"

   Or would your teacher say . . .

   b. ______ "It doesn't sound like much fun to you, does it?"

6. Jerry needs practice in arithmetic, but he never gets around to doing his assignments. He has just told the teacher that once again he does not have his work finished.

   Would your teacher . . .

   a. ______ Give Jerry an angry, disgusted look and go on with the lesson.

   Or would your teacher . .

   b. ______ Send Jerry to a quiet place where he would miss out on class activities until his work was finished.

7. Suzanne has more trouble with schoolwork than most children in her class. One day, when she gave a wrong answer to a very simple question, several children laughed at her

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "I feel irritated when people laugh at the mistakes of others. I think it's because I have been laughed at and I remember how much it can hurt."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Boys and girls, how would you feel if someone laughed at you whenever you made a mistake? That's not very polite, is it?"

8. Somehow Ann just can't seem to stay in her seat.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "Ann, you can earn a special privilege if you get out of your seat fewer than three times this morning."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Don't let me catch you getting out of your seat again this morning!"

9. Jim is behind in his work because he finds it more fun to goof-off with his friends than to do his assignments.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "You can spend a few minutes talking with your friends if you complete this assignment first."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "If you don't get to work right now, you're going to be in real trouble."

10. Roberta seems to always lose her pencil and paper and to forget things that she needs for class.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Keep an extra supply of pencils and paper on hand for Roberta to use and ask others to share with her.

Or would your teacher . .

b. _____ Ask Roberta to help in working out a plan that would not bother others and would help Roberta to remember.

11. A student said, "I hate school; it's just like a prison!"

Would your teacher say . .

a. _____ "You're really feeling down on school, aren't you?"

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Oh, come on, it can't be that bad."

12. Although the teacher said a new kind of arithmetic problem would be explained and the attention of everyone was needed, Joey got up in the middle of the lesson and went to sharpen his pencil.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "Joey, didn't you hear what I said just a few minutes ago? Now sit down, and I don't want to have to speak to you again."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Joey, it's annoying when you leave your seat, because I know I will have to repeat the explanation for you later on."

13. A student said, "Those teacher-aides make me mad; all they do is yell at us!"

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "You poor kids, you really have a tough life, don't you."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "It gripes you to be yelled at all the time, doesn't it?"

14. A teacher was trying to have a discussion with her class, but a boy named Tom kept interrupting the teacher and the other students who tried to talk.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "It bothers me when someone keeps interrupting because some of us cannot finish what we want to say."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Tom, quit interrupting! That's very rude."

15. The children in one class are usually well-behaved when with their teacher but have been causing trouble in the lunchroom where they are watched by a teacher-aide.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Ask the class to discuss the problem with the teacher and the teacher-aide and find a solution that everyone would think was fair.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Tell the class that bad behavior in the lunchroom would not be allowed and that names of children who misbehaved would be collected.

16. Jackie is always interrupting the teacher by talking out in class.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "I want you to help me by counting how many times you interrupt in the next hour."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Jackie, for the last time, please do not interrupt!"

17. When the teacher asks a question, Beth is very shy and is too afraid to raise her hand, even if she knows the answer.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Call on Beth when she is almost sure to know the answer, and then help Beth to feel good about any effort she makes.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Never call on Beth so as not to embarrass her.

18. One class and their teacher decided to allow gum chewing if it was done properly. This morning, however, one of the girls in the class sat on a wad of bubble gum that had been placed on her chair. She was unable to get it off her dress, a new one she was wearing for the first time.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Ask who put the gum on the chair and not allow any more gum chewing until someone admitted that they did it.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Ask the class to again discuss gum chewing and what to do about the spoiled dress.

19. When the class was discussing the school's dress code, a girl said, "Our principal is a real dope; he makes so many stupid rules."

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "It's hard for you to understand why the principal tells you that you can't do so many things."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "You might as well learn to live with rules, because you're going to have them all your life."

20. A group of students were unusually noisy after noon recess and took a long time getting into their seats and getting ready for class. Today

the teacher is especially worried that they are wasting too much time and that other teachers will complain about the noise.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "Alright, everyone in their seats and quiet by no later than 5 minutes after the bell."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Class, we have a problem. Some of us are taking a good deal of time to become quiet, much longer than I can accept. Can we talk about this problem together?"

21. Joan came in early from noon recess and said to her teacher, "I don't have any friends; all the other kids do is pick on me."

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "Yes, you do, Joan. I know of several children who think a great deal of you!"

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "You feel left out, as if the other children don't like you."

22. For the first time, Jerry who usually does not do well, has gotten a perfect score on the spelling test.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Probably not say anything.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Comment on how well Jerry had done.

23. Instead of working on her reading workbook assignment, Mary only pretended to be busy and actually was just drawing on a piece of paper. So, she did not have her assignment finished when it was time to correct it.

Would your teacher say . . .

a. _____ "Mary, I don't understand. I thought you had enough time to complete the assignment."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. _____ "Mary, I gave this assignment thirty minutes ago, and you still aren't finished! What have you been doing anyway?"

24. The class had just been asked to walk, rather than **run**, through the hall. Several boys, however, walked only a few steps and then began to run ahead of the group.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Yell for the boys to stop and then scold them for disobeying.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Wait until the group caught up and then have the boys go back and walk.

25. Jeff has a habit of yelling in the classroom, or in the halls, when he gets excited.

Would your teacher . . .

a. _____ Ask Jeff to help work out a plan by which Jeff could control his yelling.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. _____ Give Jeff a good scolding each time he yelled.

26. A student was asked to return to his seat because he was laughing and poking others instead of watching an experiment at the front of the

room. He made as if he would not move, and said, " Why do I have to sit down? I wasn't the only one doing it!"

Would your teacher say . . .

a. ______ "You feel I'm being unfair to you."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. ______ "If you don't sit down right now, I'll give you something else to feel bad about!"

27. A student said, "The food in this school makes me sick; it's so bad."

Would your teacher say . . .

a. ______ "You really are unhappy about the lunches you're getting."

Or would your teacher say . . .

b. ______ "Kids today are too hard to please; there are millions of people who would be grateful if they had half of what we eat."

28. A teacher has given the class the choice of going on one of two special field trips. The class, however, cannot agree on which to choose, with half the children arguing for one choice and half the other.

Would your teacher . . .

a. ______ Ask the group to keep talking about the problem until everyone could agree.

Or would your teacher . . .

b. ______ Explain why the one choice was probably the better one, and decide that it would be the choice since the class could not agree.

School________ Teacher________ Grade____ ID____

PART I: "WHAT WOULD YOUR TEACHER DO?"

1. 1 ____ 2 ____ 2. 1 ____ 2 ____ 3. 1 ____ 2 ____ 4. 1 ____ 2 ____ 5. 1 ____ 2 ____ 6. 1 ____ 2 ____

7. 1 ____ 2 ____ 8. 1 ____ 2 ____ 9. 1 ____ 2 ____ 10. 1 ____ 2 ____ 11. 1 ____ 2 ____ 12. 1 ____ 2 ____

13. 1 ____ 2 ____ 14. 1 ____ 2 ____ 15. 1 ____ 2 ____ 16. 1 ____ 2 ____ 17. 1 ____ 2 ____ 18. 1 ____ 2 ____

19. 1 ____ 2 ____ 20. 1 ____ 2 ____ 21. 1 ____ 2 ____ 22. 1 ____ 2 ____ 23. 1 ____ 2 ____ 24. 1 ____ 2 ____

25. 1 ____ 2 ____ 26. 1 ____ 2 ____ 27. 1 ____ 2 ____ 28. 1 ____ 2 ____

PART II: "MY CLASSMATES, MYSELF, AND MY TEACHER"

	1 − − − −	2 − − − +	3 + − − +	4 + + − +	5 + + + +
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					

TEACHER UTILIZATION OF PUPIL DATA

Vonna Malinen and Nancy McKain*

Background

A prime purpose of education is to serve students, enabling them to maximize their individual potential. One educational tool available to teachers is data received from test scores. Non-academic information found in students' cumulative records is also an aid to teachers in planning how best to serve an individual and a class. Better understanding of both kinds of data should lend to improved utilization of the information and thus improve the educational climate for teachers and students.

The need for greater understanding and utilization of student data provided the basis for the "Accommodate Teachers in Effective Utilization of Student Data Project." Emphasis on the title words *accommodate* and *effective* is significant. To accommodate means to lend helpful, non-threatening assistance to teachers, important in these days of accountability. Effective utilization implies greater depth of understanding and wider latitude of data use. This article will consist of an overview of the project plan, its results and plan for the future.

Objectives

Below are the five major objectives of the project:

1. To provide a data processing recording and reporting system which will continually update student data, providing a concise record through all the school year.
2. To assist all teachers K-14 in interpretation and utilization of student data.
3. Monitor the effectiveness of the program through continuous processing of information relating to achievement of objectives.
4. Provide assistance in monitoring programs initiated by the district and/or service said programs as requested by them and within the scope of our service.
5. To provide an impetus for the development of a broad, comprehensive test program, grades K-14.

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*Ms. Malinen and Ms. McKain were the project director and internal evaluator respectively, and Linda Bolton assisted in the development of the content. This was a Title III project funded under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Data Processing System Established

Inherent in the design to accomplish what the project title directs was the development of a data processing system for teachers which would receive, record, retrieve and report relevant data on every student in the geographical boundary of Independent School District No. 742. Such a comprehensive information storage system also provides a concise, efficient data base for other district services such as attendance, census and special education. The data design and system was developed and is now in use in St. Cloud area schools (Appendix A). It includes all students, both public and parochial, a total of approximately 6,500 students in 22 elementary schools.

In order to facilitate maximum use of student data, the testing schedule was revised and students were tested in the Fall of 1971, and the Spring of 1972. Henceforth, the district-wide testing will be done in the Spring. The advantages of such a program include year-end review of progress by both students and teachers, data reorganization time in the summer months, preparation of new class lists with the cumulative scores for each student, and pre-school teacher planning using the data printout of the incoming class.

The cumulative scores for each student presents to the teacher a profile of the individual's pattern of learning, current level of achievement and areas of need. Likewise it provides a composite profile of the new class, allowing initial group placement and class program determinations prior to the opening day of school (Appendix A). Thus the planning is done, beginning programs set, individual needs noted and the machinery of education is able to accelerate smoothly at the start of the new school year.

In-service Sessions Held

In order to assure acceptance of the new reporting format and facilitate a wider understanding of the information presented, in-service sessions were held with each public and parochial faculty.

During the life of the project, the project director assisted teachers in possible ways to utilize the data available on her students. Approximately 125 meetings were held with faculties for discussions of specific problems (as well as mini-in-service meetings) on techniques such as item-analysis, individual profiling, program planning for a class, curriculum planning and parent conferencing. Teachers were able to request individual assistance, also.

The project was guided by a Teacher's Advisory Council which met monthly to review and plan. Regular meetings were also held with administrators and evaluators.

One product of the project is a three-module learning kit for use with teachers new to the district. The modules direct activities to understanding, interpreting, and utilizing test results. Standardized, criterion-referenced and teacher made tests are included in the learning kit.

The teachers have exhibited a more positive attitude toward testing since the inception of the project as will be noted later. They accept the time required to administer and utilize tests as educational activities, and view the evaluation process as an instructional aid rather than an indicator of teacher proficiency, as was often the case in the past. A representative district test committee has been functioning during 1972-73 and has recommended such a program, incorporating the products of the Data Utilization Project, to the school board.

EVALUATION: FIRST YEAR

TEACHER UNDERSTANDING AND ATTITUDE TOWARD TESTING

The evaluation during the first year of the project consisted of pre and post tests (Appendix B) on the in-service programs of the 12 pilot schools. The results of each of the twelve items are reported in Appendix C, however, the general results will be examined. Approximately 80 per cent of the participating teachers responded to the survey.

On item 1, teachers responded on a semantic differential to this statement: "I feel that test results are presented in such an abstract statistical manner that it is too difficult for me to use them appropriately." For purposes of data analysis, the semantic differential line was divided into five equal parts, a score of 1 thus being far on the disagree end of the scale—a score of 5 being far on the agree end of the scale. On the pre test 31 per cent of the teachers involved in the project placed a check within the '1' area and a total of 50 per cent placed a check within the '1' and '2' area. On the post test 48 per cent of the teachers placed a check in the '1' area and 78 per cent in the '1' through '2' area. Thus there was an increase of 28 per cent in the proportion of teachers disagreeing with the idea that test results were too abstract and difficult to use appropriately. A chi square test run on pre and post proportions indicates that teachers made significant positive change in attitudes, $p. < .0005$.

The same scale was used on item 2 which stated: "The administration and scoring of standardized tests is too much to ask of the classroom teacher considering all of the other things he/she must do." On the pre test 26 per cent of the teachers strongly disagreed while 36 per cent placed a check in the '1' through '2' area. Thus there was a slight decrease (1%) in the proportion of teachers showing disagreement with statement two on the post test.

Item 3 listed eight attitudinal statements toward standardized tests. Three of these reflected positive attitudes. On the post test there was an increase in the proportion of teachers responding to one of these three responses, and a slight decrease on the other two. However, comparing average ratings on these three responses there was an increase of 6 per cent in the proportion of teachers choosing positive attitudinal responses on the post test.

On item 5, teachers were to circle the terms they felt comfortable talking to parents about; there were seven terms. There was an increased proportion of teachers circling 2 of the terms on the post test.

On item 6, teachers were to circle the terms they felt parents should know about. There was an increased proportion responding to three of the items on the post test.

Items 4 and 7-12 on the questionnaire dealt with teachers' knowledge of basic statistical concepts.

Item 4 required teachers to pick out several points on a normal curve. There was an increase of 32 per cent in the proportion of teachers who could name the mean, an increase of 48 per cent in the proportion of teachers who could name the mode, an increase of 23 per cent who could name the median, an increase of 25 per cent who could name a specified percentile point, an increase of 18 per cent who could name an additional percentile point, and an increase of 4 per cent who could name the appropriate stanine. A chi square run on pre and post proportions for item 4 indicates that teachers made significant growth, $p. < .05$.

Item 7 dealt with distribution scores and contained three correct responses. On the post test an increased proportion of teachers selected all three responses. Looking at individual responses the increases were by 9 per cent, 21 per cent, and 10 per cent.

There was an increase of 4 per cent in the proportion of teachers who answered item 8 correctly on the post test, an increase of 3 per cent who answered item 9 correctly, an increase of 22 per cent for item 10 (a statistically significant increase), 6 per cent for item 11, and a 4 per cent increase of correct responses for item 12. The questions dealt with rank ordering, a normal distribution curve, selecting the mode from a given distribution, the use of test data to make practical decisions, and subjective vs. objective test data.

Thus, there was an overall growth in knowledge of basic statistical concepts shown by teachers on each post questionnaire item measuring the variable.

EVALUATION: SECOND YEAR

PARENT SURVEY

A parent questionnaire was presented to randomly selected parents, at the close of parent-teacher conferences, Fall 1972 (Appendix D). Approximately 67 per cent of the parent questionnaires were returned. This 12 point checklist dealt with teacher communication to parents regarding test scores. The response was overwhelmingly in favor of use of standardized tests, communication of scores to parents, and knowledgeable use of the scores to provide educational guidance and proper programming for students. The scales also indicated that parents judged the teachers as knowledgeable about tests and test uses, and able to communicate the data clearly to them.

For nearly all the parents, this was their first parent-teacher conference this year. About 85 percent (N = 130) of the parents had seen the standardized test results and about 15 per cent had not (N = 21).

High percentages (over 85%) of parents who had seen and discussed the tests results felt the tests helped them and the teachers better understand the children, that the teachers had a good understanding of the tests, that the tests were a good indication of ability and performance, that results should be reported to parents, and that such tests are important. Smaller percentages (about 72%) felt they *would* do something different with their children after knowing the test results, and that the children should be shown the test results.

Of the 15 per cent of parents who did *not* see the test results, 86 per cent of them would have liked to have seen them. Only about 57 per cent of these parents felt the results should always be shown to parents and one-third felt they should not. Eighty-one per cent of this group felt such testing was important and about 14 per cent felt it was not. Over half (52%) of this 15 per cent thought that knowing the test results would cause them to do something different with their children. Over half (62%) of this group did *not* think the test results should be shown to the children, while only 33 per cent of them felt they should be.

Most parents who offered their opinions of standardized testing felt that such tests were very helpful in identifying the child's weak and strong points so that teachers and parents would be in a better position to give the child help where he/she needed it.

TEACHER PARTICIPATION

Just prior to administration of Spring tests, 1973, questionnaires were distributed to teachers and principals. The following results are indicators of additional project impact.

159 teacher questionnaires were returned, 79.5 per cent of those sent out. Before being tallied, the teacher questionnaires were grouped according to extent of project participation as presented in Table 1:

Table 1

Teacher Participation

Group	Type of Participation	N
I.	Printed materials only (instruction manual)	27
II.	Voluntary in-service and/or individual consultation with project personnel (1972-73)	27
III.	Scheduled workshop participation and/or individual consultation with project personnel (1971-72)	16
IV.	Two year participation (1971-73)	89
	Total:	159

These groupings provide a continuum of extent of participation from I, minimal involvement, to IV, all of the activities offered.

All tallies were converted to percentages and compared in 2 x 2 matrices by use of the chi square. All reported probabilities are at least above the .05 level of significance. Tables and questionnaires containing the following information in detail may be found in Appendix E.

Item Analysis

Group and individual item analysis of standardized test data was available upon request to teachers both in 1971-72 and in 1972-73. When the percentage of teachers in each group requesting this is compared (item #1), the following significant differences appear:

> Those groups (III, IV) who participated in 1971-72 activities contained a higher per cent of teachers requesting item analysis in that year and in 1972-73.
>
> The increase (1971-72 to 1972-73) in per cent of teachers making this request was higher in those groups who participated in 1972-73 (II, IV) than those who did not.

Communication with Parents

A significantly higher per cent of teachers in groups II and IV (those participating in 1972-73) reported using data to communicate with parents concerning students' progress (item #2). In every group the majority of teachers reported such use. This correlated with responses when teachers were asked whether parents *should* receive standardized test results (item #10). No differences appeared between groups; however, more than 70 per cent of all those teachers responding across groups agreed that parents should have access to test information. Of those agreeing, almost all felt such information should be interpreted for the parents. Group III differed significantly over the others when asked how effective such data was (item #11). While in every group the majority of teachers felt it was of at least average utility, one fourth of Group III felt its effectiveness was 'poor' and over one third felt it was 'very effective'.

Student/Teacher Communication

No significant differences appear between groups in use of data for student communication although, Groups II and IV report significantly more extensive use of data in conferring with students (item #2). Again, no differences appear when asked if they actually used test results in student conferences (item #13). Groups II and IV (1972-73 participation) contained a significantly higher percentage who felt students should not be given such data (item #12).

Placement Purposes

Groups having participated to any extent (II, III, IV) reported using data for both group and individual placement and/or programming purposes more often than Group I, who had not participated in any personal project services (item #2).

Evaluation Purposes

The pattern for Group II differs significantly in extent of use of data for curriculum evaluation, fewer teachers reporting *extensive* use of data for this purpose than any other group. However, this difference disappears when the table is collapsed to a yes-no dichotomy (item #2).

More teachers in groups participating to any extent (II, III, IV) reported using data in method/technique evaluation than Group I did. Significantly fewer teachers in Groups I and III (no 72-73 participation) reported using data for individual student evaluation or for self-evaluation than Groups II and IV (item #2).

Learning Priorities and Attainment of Objectives

When the groups are compared for per cent using data to determine learning priorities (overall mean = 46%/25, item #4) a significantly lower per cent of teachers in Groups I and II reported such use (no 71-72 participation). Incidence of data utilization in measuring attainment of learning objectives (overall mean = 39%, item #5) is significantly lower in Group I. Seventy-nine per cent of those who use data for these purposes feel the reporting format is suitable.

Usefulness of Services

When asked to rank order usefulness of services (item #6) all groups preferred graphed profiles to numerically presented data and workshops over printed manuals.

No differences appear between groups when asked whether their understanding and/or knowledge had increased (item #9). A mean of 6.5 per cent reported 'very much', a mean of 78 per cent reported 'somewhat', and a mean of 20.75 per cent felt 'not at all'. In every group the majority preferred the reporting format developed through this project to those previously in use in this district (item #16, 17).

More than a third of the teachers in each group requested additional student data (birthdate, special education programs, handicaps) as part of individual student profiles.

ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL RESPONSE

Principals were also asked to respond to questionnaires and 16 of the 23 or 70 per cent replied. Questionnaires with counts and per cents may be found in Appendix F. All indicated that they themselves make use of standardized data for a variety of purposes (item #1); 69 per cent felt the consulting services provided by the project facilitated such usage and 88 per cent reported facilitation by project reporting format. 94 per cent felt their own participation was of value (item #4) reporting that they felt their knowledge of data utilization had increased this last year (item #13). Principals reported using standardized data for different purposes than teachers and therefore placing importance on grade profiles and item analysis as well as the individual profiles their teachers found useful. Workshops were rated high for both principals and teachers. Instructional manuals were ranked at the bottom of rank ordered services (54%, item #5). 69 per cent had discussed use of data with teachers this last year (item #7) and over half (63%) said they felt teachers used more pupil data in 1972-73 than previously (item #8). Eighty-one per cent reported teachers' attitudes had become more positive (item #9).

Assimilation

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Data reporting formats developed through this project have been accepted by the district for continuance, as has the spring testing date (requested by 69% of the teachers) and August regrouping of data for teachers' use in planning for their incoming classes. Self study learning packets (Appendix G) have been developed and the District Testing Committee has recommended that teachers in the district, through use of these packets, show competency in interpretation and utilization of standardized data. Consultant services will be available to teachers after the project is discontinued through two 'helping teachers' presently in the district and increased principal participation. The Committee has also recommended a policy of reporting to parents and students the results of standardized tests given in the district.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Under auspices of this project, Junior high counselors received pupil data reports (identical to elementary reports, Attachment A) in September, 1972, of the population entering the Junior High Schools at that time. Based on this exposure to data reporting possibilities, the counseling departments of both Junior High Schools requested development of a formalized procedure for receiving student profiles early each spring for placement purposes and, in addition, summarized information for curriculum and planning purposes.

The developed procedure was approved by the school district and implemented in April, 1973. A complete description of this process, sample printouts, utilization, and counseling department recommendations are contained in Appendix H.

OTHER USES

The data base developed through this project has, with district approval, provided teaching personnel with printouts of select student groups (Appendix I, Special Education example), has been incorporated with other collected information for state required administrative reporting (Title I example), and has provided information for internal and administrative reporting.

NON-PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Concomitant with the project year 1972-73 and perhaps because of the project involvement in the Parochial schools in St. Cloud, the Diocese of St. Cloud did a detailed study of their testing program. The report and recommendations were prepared by Sister Nora Luetmer, Associate Superintendent. Much of the Data Utilization Project will be incorporated in the testing program of the Diocese, which includes 16 counties of Minnesota, 39 elementary and 6 secondary schools.

Summary

The project to increase teacher utilization of important pupil data appears to have accomplished many of the objectives identified at the beginning. An information system for recording, storing, and retrieving pupil data relevant to the teaching-learning process has been developed and put into use. The representative district-wide Test Committee has made recommendations to the school board relative to some of the outcomes of the project. Assistance to teachers in the understanding and utilization of pupil data was provided and evidence indicates some improvement in attitude but more importantly significant increases in knowledge of basic statistical concepts necessary in interpreting test results. Another important finding (although not necessarily a project outcome) was that a high per cent of parents reported seeing the standardized test results during teacher-parent conferences and indicated that such discussions were helpful. With some exceptions, the more teachers were involved in the various project activities the more they tended to utilize test results such as item analysis, teacher-parent conferences, individual and group placements, and evaluation of teaching methods. Teachers who participated more fully in the project activities did not seem to differ much from those who were minimally involved in using testing for evaluating curriculum. Principals reported the project as helpful, discussed the use of pupil data and indicated an improvement in teacher attitude toward utilization of pupil data. Principals will continue to expand their responsibility to components of the project (in-service, consultations, etc.) in an effort to make the project benefits operational on a regular basis.

Self study learning kits have been developed and the Board is presently considering a recommendation that all district teachers demonstrate understanding of interpretation and utilization of standardized data.

The Parochial school system has recommended continuation of project services under a purchase agreement with the public school district.

APPENDIX A

INTERPRETATION AND UTILIZATION OF TEST DATA IOWA TEST OF BASIC SKILLS

The ITBS has eleven sub-tests and fifteen scores. The student class list contains Fall 1971 and Spring 1972 scores for each student and also the class mean for each of the fifteen columns.

1. An overview of the class may be observed by surveying the class means, noting the sub-tests which are less than the expected achievement. These might be considered as areas of special concern in planning the class program for the year.
2. Review the student list. A useful guide to a student's expected range of achievement on the ITBS is his composite percentile. The procedure is as follows:

Composite percentile score		Points
0-10	90-99	5
11-24	76-89	10
25-75		15

If the composite percentile falls between 0-10 or 90-99, allow 5 points above or below his/her percentile on each sub-test.

If the composite percentile falls between 11-24 or 76-89, allow 10 points above or below his/her percentile sub-test scores.

If the composite percentile falls between 25-75, allow 15 points above or below the percentile on sub-test scores.

Using this scale, review each child's sub-test percentiles for Spring, 1972. If a particular percentile is higher than the expected range, place a plus (+) sign in front of that percentile. If the percentile is lower than the expected range, mark the score with a minus (—) sign. If the percentile is within the expected range, make no mark.

As you look across the child's scores you can see his areas of strength or need. Viewing the completed class list, looking vertically at the plus and minus signs, one can plan for grouping within subject areas or perhaps total class involvement.

3. The data printout contains Fall and Spring scores in grade equivalents and percentiles. The sub-tests in which an individual has not made satisfactory gains should be easily noted by comparing the two scores. For the average student there should be approximately 7 months growth expected between the two testings.

4. Each student has been profiled with Fall and Spring ITBS scores. Included also is a transparency profile of the grade equivalent means of the class. Placing the class profile over the individual's profile and noting the position of the student scores as compared with the class average is another aid to program planning for individuals, groups, and class.

5. The student profiles are lined in red (Fall) and blue (Spring) and give a clear picture of score differences between the two testings. These graphs should be particularly useful in student and parent counseling. However, remember that the use of G.E. (grade equivalent) requires interpretation. Please note "Interpreting grade equivalent" in the Measurement Terms and Definitions paper, page 5. It has a short, clear explanation of G.E. which will be helpful. Teacher discretion should be used when showing the student profiles to students or parents. You may choose to cover the scale of grade equivalent on the side of the graph and dwell primarily upon the growth pattern pictured.

6. Included in this packet is a report on item performance. The data is from the total district scores at each grade level. Four areas are reviewed: Reading Comprehension, Language Usage, Arithmetic Concepts, and Arithmetic Problem Solving.

   The report indicates the kinds of items which were significantly low in per cent of correct answers. The teacher of grade 4, for example, may note those skills and kinds of items which were low in last year's grade 4 and include them in her program planning.

Item performance analysis is possible for each school and grade level. Also, now filed on magnetic tape, is each child's test. These can be pulled, if needed, for further diagnosis.

It is anticipated that the availability of student data prior to the opening of school will provide teachers with an additional guide to program planning for the incoming class. With groups prepared on the basis of Spring scores and prior knowledge of weak subjects areas, the educational program for each class should be ready to go into full swing within a few days after the opening of school.

Be reminded, however, that we are teaching *children,* not subject areas, and that many variables may have had impact on the sub-test or total scores for a student. Achievement test scores are not sacred — they are indicators. While not perfect, they are the best objective aid now available and are therefore worthy of our understanding and full use for temporary planning and placement of the child.

Movement from that starting point will be dependent upon teacher evaluations and perhaps the use of other assessment instruments.

Iowa Tests of Basic Skills

CENTRAL DPA	GRADE 4 NAME	SECTION 1 AGE	ITBS MAT		VOC	RDG	——LANGUAGE——				WORK STUDY SKILLS					——ARITH——			
					WRD KNO	WRD ANA	1 RDG	2 TOT RDG	3 LAN	4 SPL	TOT MATH COMP	1 MATH CONC	2 MATH PROB	3 TOT MATH	TOT SCI	1 SOC STD	2	TOT	COMP
0521405	Pupil 9	09 09	H 2 IQ 120												GR 401				
0521405			04-72	GE	5.3	5.3	3.8	3.2	3.9	4.9	4.0	5.9	6.2	2.8	5.0	4.6	3.0	3.8	4.7
0521405			04-72	P	91	88	52	36	54	74	57	96	98	20	88	79	27	55	81
0521405			04-73	GE	5.6	5.3	5.9	5.7	6.7	6.4	6.2	4.8	5.7	4.8	5.1	5.2	4.0	4.6	5.4
0521405			04-73	P	74	66	74	69	87	81	82	52	76	53	63	64	29	47	71
			GROWTH		.3	.0	2.1	2.5	2.8	1.5	2.2	1.1	.5	2.0	.1	.6	1.0	.8	.7
0531903	Pupil 10	10 05	H 2 IQ 109												GR 401				
0531903			04-72	GE	2.1	3.3	2.4	3.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.4	2.9	3.2	3.0	2.7	2.9	2.9
0531903			04-72	P	9	38	14	47	23	28	25	39	40	23	33	23	19	21	23
0531903			04-73	GE	4.4	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.8	1.9	2.5	5.1	2.5	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.5
0531903			04-73	P	41	7	10	4	8	1	3	62	4	20	22	34	34	34	16
			GROWTH		2.3	.6	.4	1.1	.0	.9	.4	1.7	.9	.8	.6	1.2	1.5	1.3	.6
0532201	Pupil 11	10 05	H 2 IQ 095												GH 401				
0532201			04-72	GE	3.5	2.2	2.8	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.9	3.4	3.4	1.8	2.9	3.7	3.5	3.6	2.8
0532201			04-72	P	44	9	23	1	2	5	2	39	40	1	20	49	42	47	19
0532201			04-73	GE	3.5	3.6	2.8	2.1	2.1	3.9	2.7	5.3	4.7	4.0	4.7	2.5	3.4	3.0	3.5
0532201			04-73	P	22	23	10	1	1	34	5	68	50	28	51	1	16	5	16
			GROWTH		.0	1.4	.0	.6	.4	2.2	.8	1.9	1.3	2.2	1.8	1.2	.1	.6	.7
0536101	Pupil 12	09 11	H 1 IQ 125												GR 401				
0536101			04-72	GE	5.0	4.0	5.0	5.0	4.1	4.7	4.7	5.0	4.3	4.3	4.5	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.5
0536101			04-72	P	86	57	78	79	60	70	75	86	68	72	78	66	75	73	76
0536101			04-73	GE	4.7	4.8	5.4	4.8	4.9	5.8	5.2	4.6	6.0	5.0	5.2	4.9	3.4	4.2	4.8
0536101			04-73	P	49	52	65	52	54	71	61	46	81	59	66	55	16	34	53
			GROWTH		.3	.8	.4	.2	.8	1.1	.5	.4	1.7	.7	.7	.7	.9	.1	.3
0550004	Pupil 13	09 10	H 2 IQ 088												GR 401				
0550004			04-72	GE	2.5	2.1	2.5	1.7	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.9	2.6	3.1	2.9	3.1	2.7	2.9	2.5
0550004			04-72	P	18	7	16	2	10	14	6	24	18	29	20	27	19	21	9
0550004			04-73	GE	3.6	2.2	3.6	2.1	3.6	2.8	3.0	2.3	3.1	3.4	2.9	3.1	2.8	3.0	2.9
0550004			04-73	P	24	1	22	1	23	13	10	1	12	14	4	5	6	5	4
			GROWTH		1.1	.1	1.1	.4	1.4	.6	.8	.6	.5	.3	.0	.0	.1	.1	.4
0557802	Pupil 14	10 07	H 2 IQ 088												GR 401				
0557802			04-72	GE	2.7	2.5	2.9	2.7	3.6	1.9	2.8	2.6	1.1	1.8	1.8	2.5	2.3	2.4	2.4
0557802			04-72	P	22	16	26	21	47	8	22	16	1	1	1	8	11	7	6
0557802			04-73	GE	2.9	3.2	3.1	1.9	2.3	2.8	2.5	3.0	2.5	3.5	3.0	2.9	3.1	3.0	2.9
0557802			04-73	P	11	16	14	1	3	13	3	10	4	16	5	3	10	5	4
			GROWTH		.2	.7	.2	.8	1.3	.9	.3	.4	1.4	1.7	1.2	.4	.5	.6	.5

Gates-MacGinitie Reading Tests

CENTRAL DPA	GRADE 2 NAME			SECTION 1 AGE	VOCABULARY								COMPREHENSION								
0536102	Pupil 1	08	07	H 1 IQ											GR 201						
0536102				04-72 VOC	RS	4.8	STD	6.7	PER	96	GS	3.5	COM	RS	3.2	STD	6.2	PER	88	GS	3.4
0536102				04-73 VOC	RS	4.7	STD	6.8	PER	96	GS	5.0	COM	RS	2.8	STD	5.5	PER	69	GS	4.0
				GROWTH		.1		.1				1.5			.4		.7				.6
0536402	Pupil 2	08	07	H 2 IQ											GR 201						
0536402				04-72 VOC	RS	3.3	STD	4.7	PER	38	GS	1.8	COM	RS	1.6	STD	4.5	PER	31	GS	1.6
0536402				04-73 VOC	RS	3.2	STD	4.8	PER	42	GS	2.7	COM	RS	2.1	STD	4.7	PER	38	GS	2.6
				GROWTH		.1		.1				.9			.5		.2				1.0
0541404	Pupil 2	08	03	H 2 IQ											GR 201						
0541404				04-72 VOC	RS	3.3	STD	4.7	PER	38	GS	1.8	COM	RS	2.4	STD	5.4	PER	66	GS	2.2
0541404				04-73 VOC	RS	4.3	STD	5.9	PER	82	GS	4.4	COM	RS	2.6	STD	5.3	PER	62	GS	3.6
				GROWTH		1.0		1.2				2.6			.2		.1				1.4
0549801	Pupil 4	08	07	H 2 IQ											GR 201						
0549801				04-72 VOC	RS	4.4	STD	5.8	PER	79	GS	2.8	COM	RS	2.2	STD	5.2	PER	38	GS	2.0
0549801				04-73 VOC	RS	3.5	STD	5.1	PER	54	GS	3.1	COM	RS	2.1	STD	4.7	PER	38	GS	2.6
				GROWTH		.9		.7				.3			.1		.5				.6
0558306	Pupil 5	08	06	H 1 IQ											GR 201						
0558306				04-72 VOC	RS	4.1	STD	5.3	PER	62	GS	2.5	COM	RS	1.9	STD	4.3	PER	42	GS	1.7
0558306				04-73 VOC	RS	3.8	STD	5.4	PER	66	GS	3.6	COM	RS	2.1	STD	4.7	PER	38	GS	2.6
				GROWTH		.3		.1				1.1			.2		.1				.9
0560402	Pupil 6	08	03	H 2 IQ											GR 201						
0560402				04-72 VOC	RS	3.2	STD	4.6	PER	34	GS	1.7	COM	RS	1.9	STD	4.8	PER	42	GS	1.7
0560402				04-73 VOC	RS	2.9	STD	4.6	PER	34	GS	2.5	COM	RS	2.0	STD	4.6	PER	34	GS	2.5
				GROWTH		.3		.0				.8			.1		.2				.8
0841001	Pupil 7	08	02	H 2 IQ																	
0841001				04-72 VOC	RS	.4	STD	.0	PER		GS	.0	COM	RS	1.0	STD	3.5	PER	7	GS	1.4
0841001				04-73 VOC	RS	1.4	STD	3.3	PER	4	GS	1.4	COM	RS	1.3	STD	3.8	PER	12	GS	1.8
				GROWTH		1.0		3.3				1.4			.3		.3				.4
0870301	Pupil 8	08	05	H 3 IQ											GR 201						
0870301				04-72 VOC	RS	3.6	STD	4.9	PER	46	GS	2.0	COM	RS	2.0	STD	4.9	PER	46	GS	1.8
0870301				04-73 VOC	RS	3.6	STD	5.1	PER	54	GS	3.3	COM	RS	2.5	STD	5.2	PER	58	GS	3.4
				GROWTH		.0		.2				1.3			.5		.3				1.6

Class End-of-Year Report

N-28
SPRING 1973 GRADE EQUIVALENT MEAN REPORT

		LANGUAGE					WORK STUDY SKILLS				ARITHMETIC			
VERB	RDNG	1	2	3	4	TOT	1	2	3	TOT	1	2	TOT	COMP
4.2	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.2	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.9	3.9

Same Class Year Ago

CENTRAL GRADE 4 SECTION 1
SPRING 1972 GRADE EQUIVALENT MEAN REPORT

		LANGUAGE					WORK STUDY SKILLS				ARITHMETIC			
VERB	RDNG	1	2	3	4	TOT	1	2	3	TOT	1	2	TOT	COMP
3.6	3.6	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.3	3.8	3.7	3.2	3.6	3.8	3.5	3.7	3.6

METROPOLITAN ACHIEVEMENT TEST
INTERPRETATION OF DATA PROCESSING PRINTOUT*

The header includes:

Line 1: name of school, grade, school year. (This may be misprinted on some sheets.)

Line 2: (column headings) DP# (Data Processing number), name, age, MAT (Metropolitan Achievement Test), and sub-test headings in abbreviation.

For each student:

DP#, name, age as of Sept. 1 in years and months (10-05 is 10 yrs. 5 mo.) date of test, (10-71 is Oct. 1971; 04-72 is April-May 1972), the G.E. score is the grade equivalent score for each sub-test. Below it is the DER — percentile rank of that score.

If a "0" appears it means that sub-test was not administered.

For purposes of interpretation the teacher should examine each student's Fall and Spring scores, noting changes in both grade equivalent and percentile. If the percentiles are relatively the same, the child is probably functioning at a consistent level.

For grouping it would be advisable to use the most current scores, since the comparison of Fall-Spring is mainly to indicate learning patterns and consistency.

These sheets are *not without error!* If you note scores for a student which seem unlikely, please refer to the lists the scoring company returned. Your principal has those sheets. Remember please, that standardized test scores are *indicators* of achievement and many variables may have affected the student on a particular testing date. We are teaching *children*, not tests, and every and all resources you have at hand should be used in determining the program set for your class and students.

The class mean transparency is prepared on the average of the current class listings. It may be useful in determining general areas of strength and weakness in the class. As imposed over the individual profile, it can indicate the relative position of the child to the average of the class. Both the individual and class profiles should prove helpful in counseling with parents and students. Individual programs can be determined with the help of these aids.

The class lists are for your use — mark them, keep them, file them, — whatever use you can make of them is your choice. We anticipate that they will be helpful in many ways.

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*Printout format similar to ITBS.

We will be requesting of you information to correct and update these lists. We hope to gather the corrections and run a final and correct list in October.

If there are questions concerning the interpretation and use of this data, please contact your principal. The services of the Data Utilization Project personnel are also available to you.

APPENDIX B

UNDERSTANDING TESTING

For numbers 1 and 2 place a check in the position on the line which corresponds with your feelings.

1. I feel that test results are presented in such an abstract statistical manner that it is too difficult for me to use them appropriately.

1 2 3 4 5

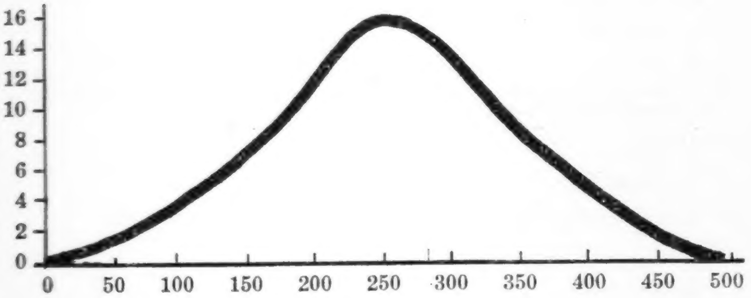
disagree agree

2. The administration and scoring of standardized tests is too much to ask of the classroom teacher considering all of the other things he/she must do.

1 2 3 4 5

disagree agree

3. Standardized tests (circle those answers which you feel are appropriate)
   1. are a nuisance
   2. are useful for diagnostic purposes
   3. are useful for placement purposes
   4. are useful for general screening
   5. cannot be sufficiently analyzed
   6. are too variable and gross a measure to be of much use in the classroom
   7. should be the responsibility of the teacher as to which test to use
   8. should allow the teacher to decide how to interpret the results



4. Using the above diagram, please write the number which corresponds to the
   1. mean = 250
   2. mode = 250
   3. median = 250
   4. 50th percentile = 250
   5. point ABOVE which approximately 90% of the population lies = 450
   6. approximate scores encompassing stanine 5 = 200-300

5. Circle the terms you feel comfortable talking to parents about.
   1. standard scores
   2. I.Q.
   3. grade placement
   4. percentiles
   5. standard deviations
   6. percentages of test questions
   7. quartiles

6. From the following list, please circle those questions which you feel parents should know about.
   1. grade placement
   2. I.Q.
   3. standard scores
   4. percentile
   5. standard deviations
   6. percentages of test questions
   7. quartiles

7.

Raw Score	No. of Students Frequency
10	1
8	3
7	4
5	9
3	5
2	4
1	1

   From the above distribution scores and knowing no more than that which is presented, which of the following bits of information could be derived? Circle your answers.
   1. rank order of any one score.
   2. quartile
   3. I.Q.
   4. percentage of students above the median
   5. grade placement

8. If one is to communicate any meaning when discussing rank ordering of a class, which of the following facts must be known first, i.e., which of the following must be known prior to computing the others? Circle your answer.
   1. percentile
   2. number in the class
   3. mean
   4. mode
   5. quartile
   6. number of questions

9. A normal distribution curve is an idealized model which is rarely obtained in actual practice.
   1. true
   2. false
   3. I don't know

10. Given the distribution (3, 5, 6, 6, 7, 9) the mode is:
   1. 6.5
   2. 6.0
   3. 3.0
   4. 5.0
   5. I have no idea

11. A good rule to follow when using test data to make practical decisions about individuals in educational settings is:
1. never rely too heavily on any one test
2. employ information which may be non-test data
3. realize that the predictive ability of a test is less than perfect
4. all of the above
5. I have no idea

12. One advantage of a subjective interview test situation over an objective test is that the subjective test
1. is more reliable
2. samples a wider range of behaviors
3. is easier to standardize
4. more easily quantified
5. I have no idea

APPENDIX C

PROPORTION OF TOTAL GROUP RESPONDING TO EACH ALTERNATIVE

		Pre	Post
		N = 42	N = 40
1. I feel that test results are presented in such an abstract statistical manner that it is too difficult for me to use them appropriately.	①	31%	48%
	②	19%	30%
	3	19%	15%
	4	17%	5%
	5	14%	2%
			$X^2 = 22.144$ sig. $p < .0005$
2. The administration and scoring of standardized tests is too much to ask of the classroom teacher considering all of the other things he/she must do.	①	26%	22%
	②	10%	12%
	3	19%	20%
	4	7%	12%
	5	38%	30%
			N.R. 2%
3. Standardized tests (Circle those answers which you feel are appropriate)			
1. are a nuisance		2%	5%
②. are useful for diagnostic purposes		62%	82%
③. are helpful for placement purposes		62%	60%
④. are useful for general screening		74%	72%
5. cannot be sufficiently analyzed		10%	8%
6. are too variable and gross a measure to be of much use in the classroom		14%	8%
7. should be the responsibility of the teacher as to which test to use		7%	8%
8. should allow the teacher to decide how to interpret the results		17%	30%
4. Using the above diagram, please write the number which corresponds to the		Correct	Response
1. mean		38%	70%
2. mode		17%	65%
3. median		57%	80%
4. 50th percentile		43%	68%
5. point ABOVE which approximately 90% of the population lies		17%	35%
6. approximate scores encompassing stanine 5		19%	22%
			$X^2 = 12.122$ sig. $p < .05$

---

*Note: Circled responses indicate the correct or most positive responses to the items.

	Pre N = 42	Post N = 40
5. Circle the terms you feel comfortable talking to parents about.		
1. standard scores	52%	48%
2. I.Q.	36%	20%
3. grade placement	76%	52%
4. percentiles	74%	80%
5. standard deviations	21%	15%
6. percentages of test questions	48%	40%
7. quartiles	26%	45%
6. From the following list, please circle those questions which you feel parents should know about.		
1. grade placement	71%	52%
2. I.Q.	19%	10%
3. standard scores	55%	38%
4. percentile	79%	85%
5. standard deviations	24%	22%
6. percentages of test questions	40%	48%
7. quartiles	26%	48%

7.

Raw Score	No. of Students Frequency
10	1
8	3
7	4
5	9
3	5
2	4
1	1

From the above distribution scores and knowing no more than that which is presented, which of the following bits of information could be derived? Circle your answers.

	Pre	Post
①. rank order of any one score	71%	82%
②. quartile	64%	85%
3. I.Q.	2%	
④. percentage of students above the median	88%	98%
5. grade placement	14%	8%
8. If one is to communicate any meaning when discussing rank ordering of a class, which of the following facts must be known first, i.e., which of the following must be known prior to computing the others? Circle your answer.		
1. percentile	17%	20%
②. number in the class	81%	85%
3. mean	24%	25%
4. mode	5%	20%
5. quartile	7%	8%
6. number of questions	36%	50%
9. A normal distribution curve is an idealized model which is rarely obtained in actual practice.		
①. true	52%	55%
2. false	33%	42%
3. I don't know	14%	2%

	Pre N = 42	Post N = 40
10. Given the distribution (3, 5, 6, 6, 7, 9) the mode is:		
1. 6.5		10%
②. 6.0	60%	82%
3. 3.0	7%	
4. 5.0		
5. I have no idea	33%	8%
		$X^2 = 11.752$ sig. $p < 001$
11. A good rule to follow when using test data to make practical decisions about individuals in educational settings is:		
1. never rely too heavily on any one test	21%	22%
2. employ information which may be non-test data	12%	15%
3. realize that the predictive ability of a test is less than perfect	26%	22%
④. all of the above	79%	85%
5. I have no idea		
12. One advantage of a subjective interview test situation over an objective test is that the subjective test		
1. is more reliable	10%	18%
②. samples a wider range of behaviors	74%	78%
3. is easier to standardize	5%	8%
4. more easily quantified	5%	12%
5. I have no idea	12%	8%

APPENDIX D

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

To the parents:

The Title III Department of the State Department of Education is interested in finding how parents feel about receiving results of Standardized Tests as a part of parent/teacher conferences and to receive suggestions from parents concerning how these conferences might be made more helpful for both teachers and parents. We would appreciate having you fill in the questionnaire, and comment concerning these conferences. When you have completed the questionnaire, please put it in the envelope and mail it. No postage is required. Thank you.

N = 151

1. Is this your first parent-teacher conference this year?

   137 yes   14 no
   90.7%   9.3% of total population

   If not, do these questions apply to an earlier conference?

   3 yes   38 no
   7.3%   92.7%

2. During this conference, did the teacher show you your child's Standardized Test results?

   128 yes   22 no   1 other
   84.8%   14.6%   .7%

   If you did *not* see or discuss the results of your child's tests, please go to question number 8. If you *did* see and/or discuss tests results, please continue with number 3.

N = 130 Responses: Parents who were shown standardized tests. (Yes to #2)

3. Did you discuss the meaning of the test results with the teacher?

   128 yes   1 no   1 other
   98.5%   .8%   .8%

4. Did you feel the teacher had a good understanding of the tests you were shown?

   128 yes   1 no   1 other
   98.5%   .8%   .8%

5. Did you find the information helped you to understand your child better?

116 yes	11 no	3 other
89.2%	8.5%	2.3%

6. Did you feel the tests helped the teacher better understand your child?

123 yes	7 no
94.6%	5.4%

7. Do you feel the test results are a good indication of your child's ability and performance?

111 yes	9 no	10 other
85.4%	6.9%	7.7%

(for the 21 who did not see tests results)

8. Would you like to have seen your child's test results?

18 yes	3 no
85.7%	14.3%

9. Do you feel teachers should always report such test results to parents?

116 yes	8 no	6 other
89.2%	6.2%	4.6%

10. Do you feel such testing is important?

115 yes	8 no	7 other
88.5%	6.2%	5.4%

11. Would knowing your child's test results cause you to do anything different for/with him?

94 yes	29 no	7 other
72.3%	22.3%	5.4%

12. Do you feel the test results should be shown and explained to your child?

87 yes	34 no	9 other
66.9%	26.2%	6.9%

Comments:

APPENDIX E

Table 2

Teacher Requests for Item Analysis

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
1971-72	30%	0%	75%	46%
1972-73	22%	38%	62%	90%

Table 3

Data Utilization for Communication

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Parent/Teacher				
Yes	67%	81%	69%	77%
No	33%	15%	31%	23%
No Response	0%	4%	0%	0%
Opinion/Should parents be given such Data?				
Yes, with interp.	70%	78%	88%	81%
Yes, without	5%	0%	0%	0%
No	22%	7%	6%	17%
No Response	3%	15%	6%	2%
Is it effective in parent/teacher communication?				
Very	7%	22%	38%	25%
Somewhat	56%	44%	37%	45%
Not at all	11%	11%	25%	17%
No Response	26%	23%	0%	13%
Use of Data				
Student/Teacher				
Yes	44%	55%	63%	47%
No	56%	41%	37%	52%
No Response	0%	4%	0%	1%
Opinion/Should students be given such Data?				
Yes	74%	63%	88%	64%
No	22%	30%	12%	36%
No Response	4%	7%	0%	0%
Have you used such data in conferring with students?				
Yes	52%	63%	69%	52%
No	37%	37%	25%	45%
No Response	11%	0%	6%	3%
Is it effective in student/teacher communication?				
Very	11%	15%	6%	19%
Somewhat	33%	30%	25%	27%
Not at all	7%	0%	6%	6%
No Response	49%	55%	63%	48%

Table 4

Data Utilization for Placement Purposes

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Individual				
Often	0%	19%	19%	15%
Some	70%	63%	62%	63%
Not at all	30%	15%	19%	12%
No Response	0%	3%	0%	10%

Group				
Often	4%	19%	25%	17%
Some	50%	56%	50%	63%
Not at all	44%	22%	25%	20%
No Response	2%	3%	0%	0%

Data Utilization for Evaluation Purposes

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Curriculum				
Often	15%	8%	13%	20%
Some	48%	67%	50%	52%
Not at all	37%	22%	31%	28%
No Response	0%	3%	6%	0%
Method/Technique				
Often	7%	4%	6%	7%
Some	37%	41%	50%	53%
Not at all	56%	44%	38%	40%
No Response	0%	11%	6%	0%
Individual Student Evaluation				
Often	11%	11%	13%	19%
Some	56%	67%	50%	62%
Not at all	30%	15%	37%	19%
No Response	3%	7%	0%	0%
Self Evaluation				
Often	7%	7%	25%	19%
Some	37%	63%	25%	55%
Not at all	44%	26%	38%	26%
No Response	12%	4%	12%	0%

Table 5

Use for Determining Learning Priorities

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Yes	30%	41%	63%	51%
No	59%	56%	37%	46%
No Response	11%	3%	0%	3%

Measurement of Attainment of Objectives

Yes	26%	37%	50%	43%
No	63%	44%	50%	57%
No Response	11%	19%	0%	0%

Increase in Understanding and Knowledge

Very much	4%	7%	6%	9%
Somewhat	78%	74%	81%	71%
Not at all	15%	15%	13%	20%
No Response	3%	4%	0%	0%

Table 6

Teacher Questionnaire

Group I N = 27, Group II N = 27, Group III N = 16, Group IV N = 89

1. Please check those of the following services in which you participated this last year, and those in which you participated during 1971-72.

	1972-73	1971-72
In-service workshops		
Group I		
Group II	26 (96%)	
Group III		
Group IV		
Project consulting services		
Group I		
Group II	8 (30%)	
Group III		
Group IV		
Instruction pamphlets		
Group I		
Group II	7 (26%)	1 (4%)
Group III		
Group IV		
Individual test profiles		
Group I		
Group II	1 (4%)	
Group III		
Group IV		
Computer printouts		
Group I		
Group II		
Group III		
Group IV		
Item analysis, group		
Group I	3 (11%)	4 (15%)
Group II	5 (19%)	
Group III	5 (31%)	7 (44%)
Group IV	41 (46%)	23 (26%)
Item analysis, individual		
Group I	3 (11%)	4 (15%)
Group II	5 (19%)	
Group III	5 (31%)	5 (31%)
Group IV	39 (44%)	18 (20%)

2. Do you, as a teacher, make use of standardized test information? For

	very often	sometimes	not at all
Individual placement			
Group I		19 (70%)	8 (30%)
Group II	5 (19%)	17 (63%)	4 (15%)
Group III	3 (19%)	10 (63%)	3 (19%)
Group IV	15 (17%)	63 (71%)	12 (14%)

Group organization			
Group I	1 (4%)	14 (52%)	12 (44%)
Group II	5 (19%)	15 (56%)	6 (22%)
Group III	4 (25%)	8 (50%)	4 (25%)
Group IV	15 (17%)	56 (63%)	19 (21%)
Parent communication			
Group I	2 (7%)	16 (59%)	9 (33%)
Group II	3 (11%)	19 (70%)	4 (15%)
Group III	4 (25%)	7 (44%)	5 (31%)
Group IV	9 (10%)	60 (67%)	20 (23%)
Student communication			
Group I		12 (44%)	15 (56%)
Group II	3 (11%)	12 (44%)	11 (41%)
Group III	2 (13%)	8 (50%)	6 (38%)
Group IV	7 (8%)	35 (39%)	46 (52%)
Curriculum evaluation			
Group I	4 (14%)	13 (48%)	10 (37%)
Group II	2 (7%)	18 (67%)	6 (22%)
Group III	2 (13%)	8 (50%)	5 (31%)
Group IV	18 (20%)	46 (52%)	25 (28%)
Method and/or technique evaluation			
Group I	2 (74%)	10 (37%)	15 (56%)
Group II	1 (4%)	11 (41%)	12 (44%)
Group III	1 (6%)	8 (50%)	6 (38%)
Group IV	6 (7%)	47 (53%)	36 (40%)
Individual student evaluation			
Group I	3 (11%)	15 (56%)	8 (30%)
Group II	3 (11%)	18 (67%)	4 (15%)
Group III	2 (13%)	8 (50%)	6 (38%)
Group IV	17 (19%)	56 (63%)	17 (19%)
Self-evaluation			
Group I	2 (7%)	10 (37%)	12 (44%)
Group II	2 (7%)	17 (63%)	7 (26%)
Group III	4 (25%)	4 (25%)	6 (38%)
Group IV	17 (19%)	50 (56%)	24 (27%)
None			
Group II	1 (4%)		

3. If you make use of STD, did the computer printout provided you this last fall facilitate such usage?

	Yes	No	None
Group I	12 (44%)	11 (41%)	
Group II	13 (48%)	9 (33%)	3 (11%)
Group III	9 (56%)	6 (38%)	
Group IV	54 (61%)	28 (32%)	

4. Did you use standardized test data in determining learning priorities for your class this fall?

	Yes	No
Group I	8 (30%)	16 (59%)
Group II	11 (41%)	15 (56%)
Group III	10 (63%)	6 (38%)
Group IV	45 (51%)	41 (46%)

5. Do you use standardized test data to determine whether the learning objectives you set are met?

	Yes	No	None
Group I	7 (26%)	17 (63%)	
Group II	10 (37%)	12 (44%)	3 (11%)
Group III	8 (50%)	9 (56%)	
Group IV	38 43%)	48 (54%)	

If so, do you find the format for reporting achievement scores is suitable for this purpose?

	Yes	No
Group I	3 (11%)	13 (48%)
Group II	10 (37%)	4 (15%)
Group III	7 (44%)	2 (13%)
Group IV	30 (34%)	18 (20%)

6. Please rank the following services in order from most useful to you to least useful. *Counts and percents represent the first choice only.

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Project consulting services		1 (4%)		3 (3%)
Computer printouts	3 (11%)	1 (4%)	4 (25%)	14 (16%)
Item analysis	4 (15%)	2 (7%)		2 (2%)
Workshops	7 (26%)	11 (41%)	2 (13%)	33 (37%)
Instruction pamphlets	1 (4%)	3 (11%)	1 (6%)	4 (5%)
Individual test profiles	10 (37%)	3 (11%)	9 (56%)	25 (28%)

7. Is there some service which was not offered that you feel would have been useful?

	Yes	No
Group I	3 (11%)	17 (63%)
Group II	2 (7%)	17 (63%)
Group III	2 (13%)	12 (75%)
Group IV	8 (9%)	66 (74%)

8. If you did not participate in some of the service, please indicate those in which you would have liked to be included.

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Project consulting services	3 (11%)	3 (11%)		5 (6%)
Computer printouts		1 (4%)		2 (2%)
Item analysis		2 (7%)	3 (19%)	7 (8%)
Workshops	8 (30%)	2 (7%)		5 (6%)
Instruction pamphlets	2 (7%)	1 (4%)	1 (6%)	6 (7%)
Individual test profiles		1 (4%)		3 (3%)
None			4 (25%)	

9. Do you feel your understanding and/or knowledge of testing has increased this last year?

	very much	some	not at all
Group I	1 (4%)	21 (78%)	4 (15%)
Group II	2 (7%)	20 (74%)	4 (15%)
Group III	1 (6%)	13 (81%)	2 (13%)
Group IV	8 (9%)	63 (71%)	18 (20%)

10. Do you feel test results should be communicated to parents?

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Yes	19 (70%)	21 (78%)	14 (88%)	72 (81%)
No	6 (22%)	2 (7%)	1 (6%)	15 (17%)
With interpretation	16 (59%)	23 (85%)	14 (88%)	72 (81%)
Without interpretation	1 (4%)			

11. How do you rate its effectiveness for communication in parent-teacher conferences this last fall?

	very good	average	poor	none
Group I	2 (7%)	15 (56%)	3 (11%)	
Group II	6 (22%)	12 (44%)	3 (11%)	4 (15%)
Group III	6 (38%)	6 (38%)	4 (25%)	
Group IV	22 (25%)	40 (45%)	15 (17%)	

12. Do you feel test results should be communicated to students?

	Yes	No
Group I	20 (74%)	6 (22%)
Group II	17 (63%)	8 (30%)
Group III	14 (88%)	2 (13%)
Group IV	57 (64%)	32 (36%)

13. Have you used this information in discussion with individual students?

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Yes	10 (37%)	10 (37%)	4 (25%)	40 (45%)
No	14 (52%)	17 (63%)	11 (69%)	46 (52%)
How many?				those who did - all

14. If so, please rate its effectiveness for communication with and understanding of the student.

	very good	average	poor	none
Group I	3 (11%)	9 (33%)	2 (7%)	5 (19%)
Group II	4 (15%)	8 (30%)		3 (11%)
Group III	1 (6%)	4 (25%)	1 (6%)	
Group IV	17 (19%)	24 (27%)	5 (6%)	

15. Do you feel standardized testing should be continued in the district? If so, please check those applicable:

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
ITBS	9 (33%)	6 (22%)	3 (19%)	27 (30%)
Criterion Reference	3 (11%)		3 (19%)	6 (7%)
MAT	7 (26%)	9 (33%)	3 (19%)	25 (28%)
IQ	11 (41%)	9 (33%)	10 (63%)	32 (36%)
Other	3 (11%)	1 (4%)	2 (13%)	3 (3%)
If so, what				Gates

16. Please rank order, from most useful to least useful, the following formats for standardized test results. *Counts and percents represent the first choice only.

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Computer printout	10 (37%)	8 (26%)	9 (56%)	43 (48%)
Stick on labels	8 (30%)	5 (19%)	6 (38%)	28 (32%)
Standard scoring service printouts	4 (15%)	1 (4%)		14 (16%)

17. Did you feel the computer printouts saved time in interpretation for you?

	Yes	No	None
Group I	20 (74%)	3 (11%)	
Group II	15 (56%)	6 (22%)	3 (11%)
Group III	13 (81%)	3 (19%)	
Group IV	71 (80%)	12 (14%)	

18. Would you like other information included on the printouts? If so, please check those applicable:

	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
Birthdate	13 (48%)	9 (33%)	7 (44%)	36 (40%)
IQ scores	12 (44%)	7 (26%)	6 (38%)	36 (40%)
Days absent	4 (15%)	3 (11%)		11 (12%)
General physical condition	4 (15%)	7 (26%)	5 (31%)	13 (15%)
Address	3 (11%)	3 (11%)	2 (13%)	16 (18%)
Number of family members	7 (26%)	4 (15%)	3 (19%)	19 (21%)
Special education participation	10 (37%)	10 (37%)	7 (44%)	39 (44%)
Organic handicaps	9 (33%)	8 (30%)	7 (44%)	33 (37%)
Other, if so what	2 (7%)			

APPENDIX F

N = 16 I-099-72

To the Principal:

During the last year the Data Utilization Project, Title III, has provided a number of services to the schools in utilization and understanding of standardized tests. It is important that the value of these services is now determined. Since only a minority of the teachers were involved in some of the services offered, several questions below may not apply to you or your teachers. Thank you for cooperating during the project, and for suggestions and help which were so generously available.

1. Do you, as building principal, make use of standardized tests?

(16) 100% yes ________no

2. Please list purposes for which you use such information.

____

____

____

3. Please check those services which facilitated such utilization this last year.

(11) 69% project consulting services
(6) 38% instruction manuals and pamphlets
(14) 88% computer printouts
________ other

4. Do you feel your personal participation in this project was of any value to you or your faculty?

(4) 25% /	(11) 69% /	(1) 6% /	
yes, very much so	yes	no	**no, not at all**

5. Please rank the following services in order from most useful to least useful to you and to your teachers.

To you		To your teachers	
*(3) 19%	grade profiles	(1) 6%	*The counts and per cents are those ranking this item most useful.
(5) 31%	individual test profiles	(4) 25%	
(4) 25%	in-service workshops	(2) 13%	
________	project consulting services	________	
________	instruction manuals	________	
(1) 6%	computer printouts	(1) 6%	
(3) 19%	item analysis	(1) 6%	

6. Is there some other service you feel could have been offered but was not available?

(1) 6% yes (2) 13% no if so, what?________________

7. Did any of your teachers consult with you concerning any of the services offered?

(3) 19% no (11) 69% yes, if so, which services?____________

8. Did you see indications that teachers used available standardized test data more this year than they have in the past?

(10) 63% yes (4) 25% no

9. Have you noticed changes in teacher attitude toward testing as a result of services offered?

________ yes, negatively
(13) 81% yes, positively
________ no, stayed the same

10. Do you feel parents should be shown student test data?

(14) 88% yes ________ no (1) 6% with interpretation
________ without interpretation

11. Do you feel standardized testing should be continued in the district? If so, please check those applicable:

ITBS ________
Criterion Reference ________
MAT ________
IQ ________
Other ________ if so, what? ________________

12. Do you use standardized test data to determine whether the learning objectives you set are met?

(10) 63% yes (6) 38% no

If so, do you find the format for reporting achievement scores is suitable for this purpose?

(1) 6% yes ________ no

13. Do you feel your understanding and/or knowledge of testing has increased this last year?

(3) 19% / (12) 75% / (1) 6%
very much some not at all

14. Please rank order, from most useful to least useful, the following formats for standardized test results.

________ computer printout
________ stick on labels
________ standard scoring service printouts

15. Do you feel the computer printouts saved time in interpretation for you?

________ yes ________ no

16. Would you like other information included on the printouts? If so, please check those applicable:

________ birthdate
________ IQ score
________ days absent
________ general physical condition
________ address
________ number of family members
________ special education participation
________ organic handicaps
________ other

APPENDIX G*

TEACHER'S SELF-STUDY KIT
OTIS-LENNON
MENTAL ABILITIES TEST

District No. 742
St. Cloud Public Schools
Data Utilization Project
St. Cloud, Minnesota 56301
ESEA Title III Funded
1972-73

OBJECTIVES:

1) To be able to identify the full name and purpose of the test.
2) To understand the rationale underlying the development and use of the test.
3) To know the level of use and administrative properties of the test.
4) To understand the kinds of scores reported by the instrument.
5) To understand the proper interpretation and utilization of the test data.

READINGS:

Arthur S. Otis, Roger T. Lennon. *Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Test, Manual for Administration.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1967.

Howard B. Lyman. *Test Scores and What They Mean.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.

I. NAME AND PURPOSE

1) The full name of this series is the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Test.
2) The series yields a measurement of scholastic aptitude based upon a student's reasoning ability and ability to handle abstract forms.

---

*Learning kits which have been developed (samples of which are included here) are entitled "Effective Use of Student Data", "Iowa Tests of Basic Skills", "Otis Lennon Mental Abilities Test", "Cognitive Abilities Test", "Metropolitan Achievement Tests", "Test of Academic Progress", and "Gates MacGinitie Reading Test". Due to time limitations, no field studies nor consultant evaluation have been conducted but further study is planned.

II. RATIONALE

1) The purpose of this aptitude test is *not* to measure any innate or fixed mental capacities of students as this is nearly an impossible task. Performance on the test is a result of many interrelated factors, ranging from the student's social and economic background to the student's attitude and health on the day the test was given.

2) The items in the test are not actual school problems, but were chosen to represent reasoning abilities that are necessary for success in academic and vocational settings where a person must manipulate abstract ideas, whether verbal, figural, or numerical. Test results can reflect a student's present capabilities and so have inferences in the provision of needed and appropriate learning tasks.

3) Tests of this nature have been criticized for discriminating against the culturally disadvantaged. The purpose of the test, however, is to measure the student's readiness for school-oriented learning. When culturally deprived students do show lower scores, the implications should be to provide learning tasks and experiences that will help them develop the needed abilities.

III. LEVEL OF USE, ADMINISTRATIVE PROPERTIES

1) The series is designed to be given to classroom groups.

2) There are six levels in the series, covering grades K-12. For each level there are two comparable forms, J and K, so that retesting may be done within a relatively short time interval without administering the same test.

    a. *Primary I* is for use in the last half of kindergarten. The pictorial items measure the students' abilities to classify, follow directions, reason quantitatively and comprehend verbal concepts. No reading is required as each item is presented by the examiner. The 30-35 minute test is administered in two separate sittings.

    b. *Primary II* is to be used in the first half of grade one, or in the second half for slower students. The content and administration is the same as the Primary I level.

    c. *Elementary I* is for "typical" students in the last half of grade three, or beginning of grade four, for slower students. The pictorial items require no reading and relate to the ability to classify, follow directions, reason quantitatively, comprehend verbal concepts, and reason by analogy. Total administration time is about one hour and is done in two sittings.

d. The *Elementary II, Intermediate,* and *Advanced* levels cover grades 4-6, 7-9, and 10-12 respectively. The designated grade levels are to be used as guides for use in average classrooms and may be varied to fit the needs of slower or more advanced students. The tests make use of verbal and non-verbal items. Each of these levels can be administered in one 45-50 minute session.

IV. SCORING

The test yields one total score representing the "g" or general intellective ability factor. Scores are reported as Deviation IQ's (DIQ), percentile ranks, stanines, and mental-age equivalents.

1) a. Deviation IQ (DIQ): The DIQ is given by chronological age in three month intervals. For each age level, the mean (average) DIQ is 100 with a standard deviation of 16. This means that about 2/3 of the students may be expected to score between one standard deviation above and below the mean, or between 84 and 116. About 96% will score within two standard deviations of the mean (68 to 132), and the remainder will score beyond two standard deviations from the mean. As the scores move further from the mean in terms of standard deviations, they may be considered very different from the average.

b. Since the mean and standard deviation is the same for all age levels, the same scores at different age levels reflect similar relative performance or development. The obtained scores should be considered in terms of standard deviations from the mean to avoid placing too much importance on one number.

2) a. Percentile Ranks (by age and grade): Percentile ranks report the student's performance level as compared to, in this case, a national norm or reference group. For example, if a fifth-grader received a percentile rank of 95, this means that 95% of the fifth-grade pupils in the norming sample earned scores at or below this, while 5% of the pupils scored higher than this level. A percentile rank of 50 represents the middle, or typical, score earned by pupils at a

given grade level. Percentile ranks by age are converted from the DIQ score, which means that the percentile ranks are the same for all age levels. A DIQ of 116 always equals a percentile rank of 84. Local percentile ranks can also be calculated.

b. Percentiles do not represent equal units. Since most students will score near the middle of the scale (50 is average), a difference of five points between students at the extremes of the scale will reflect a greater difference than five points near the middle. Percentiles do *not* report the per cent of correct responses and cannot be added to find averages.

3) a. Stanines (by age and grade) : The stanine (shortened form of standard-nine) scale is relatively new being developed during World War II and only more recently coming into more general use. It is a nine point scale with a low of one, a high of nine, a mean of five, and standard deviation of two points (so scores must differ by two points to be considered very different from each other). Stanines of 1, 2, or 3 are well below average, and 7, 8, and 9 are well above average.

b. The use of stanines can help avoid some of the problems associated with percentiles. The units represent equal distances, so a stanine score of 7 is as much different from 8 as 3 is from 4. The stanines also represent a range or band of raw scores (by grade) or DIQ's (by age), and so reduce the possibility of overinterpretation of a single score or small differences in scores.

4) a. Mental-Age Equivalents: Otis-Lennon provides mental-age equivalents for the first three test levels. These scores represent the typical performance of a given age level. A raw score of 46, for example, has a mental-age equivalent of 8-7 which means that this was the typical score of students in the norm group who were 8 years and 7 months old.

b. There are many difficulties with these kinds of scores. Ability and growth varies from one age level to the next, and growth is not even. This is not accounted for in mental-age scores. It is easy to misinterpret such scores. A student that scores a mental-age equivalent two years beyond his/her chronological age cannot necessarily perform all the same tasks as a student two years older. The scores are sometimes used with younger children in helping to determine readiness for school or in the formation of instructional groups.

V. INTERPRETATION, UTILIZATION OF TEST DATA

1) Students who score extremely high or low should be retested on the next (higher or lower) level of the series, individually with another instrument. Too much emphasis should not be placed on a single testing. This is especially true for very young students who may lack the necessary attention span or be uncomfortable in group testing situations. Also, a student could have been distracted or feeling poorly on the test day.

2) Age scores (DIQ, percentile ranks and stanines by age groups) are best used in guidance and counseling for evaluation of learning potential, for students who are above or below grade level for his/her age, and for research purposes. Grade scores (percentiles and stanines by grade) are best used in helping to form groupings within the classroom or in similar situations where the student will be involved with others of the same grade, but not necessarily the age. Most students will have similar age and grade scores.

3) Otis-Lennon recommends using stanines by grade when comparing aptitude and achievement test results. A student should not be expected to score as well as his/her aptitude may suggest in *all* subject areas. Also, aptitude and achievement comparisons are more valid from the middle elementary grades on up than at the lower levels.

4) It is important not to place too much emphasis on a given score (percentile, DIQ), but to think of the obtained score as falling within a range of possible scores.

5) Results from the Otis-Lennon Mental Abilities Test should be used in combination with all the pertinent information a test user has about a particular child.

QUESTIONS:

1) The Otis Lennon Mental Abilities Tests offer a measure of:
   a. the highest achievement level possible for a student.
   b. the innate mental capacities of a student.
   c. a student's present reasoning ability and ability to deal with abstract forms.
   d. level of achievement in school-oriented tasks.

2) With a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 16, a DIQ score of 92 indicates that:
   a. the student is not very different from the average.
   b. the student is well below average.
   c. the student needs special materials and learning tasks to experience success in school.
   d. the student cannot be expected to do very well in school.

3) The levels in the Otis-Lennon series cover grades:
   a. K-6.
   b. 3-8.
   c. 1-9.
   d. K-12.

4) If a student earned a percentile rank of 90, the student:
   a. is probably a genius.
   b. correctly answered 90% of the test items.
   c. may be expected to do well in school.
   d. should be retested.

5) Concerning stanines, it is true that:
   a. the units represent equal intervals.
   b. the scores represent a range of scores.
   c. stanine is a shortened form of standard-nine.
   d. all of the above.

6) A stanine score of three indicates that:
   a. the student performed within the average range.
   b. the student may need some special help.
   c. the results are probably invalid.
   d. the student has severe problems.

TEACHER'S SELF-STUDY KIT
IOWA TESTS OF BASIC SKILLS

District No. 742
St. Cloud Public Schools
Data Utilization Project
St. Cloud, Minnesota 56301
ESEA Title III Funded
1972-73

OBJECTIVES:

1) To be able to identify the full name and purpose of the test.
2) To know the level of use and administrative properties of the test.
3) To be familiar with the format and subject areas included in the test.
4) To understand the kinds of scores reported by the instrument.
5) To understand the proper interpretation and utilization of the test data.

READINGS:

A. N. Hieronymus and E. G. Lindquist. *Teacher's Guide for Administration, Interpretation, and Use, Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, Forms 5 and 6.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.; 1971.

"Measurement Terms and Definitions: A Short Course for the Layman."

I. NAME AND PURPOSE

1) ITBS stands for Iowa Tests of Basic Skills.
2) ITBS is an achievement test, measuring developmental level and growth in several subject areas.

II. LEVEL OF USE, ADMINISTRATIVE PROPERTIES

1) The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, Forms 5 and 6, were designed for use in grades 1 through 8.
2) ITBS is given to groups of students, but the levels can be varied to fit the needs and abilities of the students.

   Three methods of testing are suggested:

   a. Graded Testing: A single level of the test is given to a class according to grade level.

b. Out-of-Level Testing: The same test level is given to all students in a class, but the level is chosen to fit a non-average group.

c. Individualized Testing: Different levels of the test are administered to different students within the same group. Each pupil takes the test most suited to his/her objectives and skill level.

3) To select the appropriate level to use if testing out of grade level, the teacher is advised to use subjective considerations of each student (or class), to choose the level where the items are challenging but attainable, or to use previous test results plus an estimate of growth.

4) The test levels correspond roughly to chronological age, or grade level plus six (example: Level 9 is for the 9 year old, grade 3).

III. FORMAT, SUBJECT AREAS

1) The ITBS consists of eleven multiple choice tests in five subject areas:

Test V: Vocabulary

Test R: Reading Comprehension

Test L: Language Skills
  L-1: Spelling
  L-2: Capitalization
  L-3: Punctuation
  L-4: Usage

Test W: Work Study Skills
  W-1: Map Reading
  W-2: Reading Graphs and Tables
  W-3: Knowledge and Use of Reference Materials

Test M: Mathematics
  M-1: Mathematics Concepts
  M-2: Mathematics Problem Solving

2) The total time needed to administer the battery is about five hours, and the recommendation is to give the tests on four consecutive days. All levels have the same structure, directions and time allowances, so different levels can be given at the same time. There is a need to follow the directions for administration as given in the manual in order to duplicate as nearly as possible the testing conditions on which the scoring is based.

IV. SCORING

The grade equivalent (GE) and national percentile rank (PR) are the most generally used scoring procedures for the ITBS.

1) Grade Equivalents (GE): The GE score indicates the developmental level of the student. The scores are reported in two-digit numbers ranging from 31 to 81 (scores above or below these numbers should not be interpreted literally). The first digit indicates the grade level, the second digit indicates the month (strictly speaking, it means 1/10 of a year). Thus, a GE of 35 means the students performance was the same as a "typical" student at the end of the 5th month of grade 3 would perform on the same test. In addition to showing developmental level, the GE scores also show growth from one testing to the next. A "typical" student would be expected to gain 10 points in a year.

2) Percentile Rank (PR): The PR gives the standing of the student in relation to others, usually a national norm group (a representative sampling of students) of the same grade level, although local percentile ranks can also be calculated. The PR score means that the student scored better than the per cent of students given. A PR of 70, then, would mean that the student's performance equals or exceeds 70% of the norm group, and 30% scored as well as or higher than the student.

Scores may also be reported as age-equivalents (AE) or as stanines.

3) Age-Equivalents (AE): The AE is also a developmental score, similar to the GE, but especially for use in nongraded programs. It is a two or three digit score, the first one or two digits meaning the year and the last digit meaning tenths of a year. An AE of 93 would mean that the student scored the same as a "typical" student that was 9 3/10 years old would have scored on the same test.

4) Stanines: Stanine scores are roughly comparable to percentile ranks and also indicate a student's standing within a particular norm group. The stanine (short for standard-nine) range is from one to nine with an average value of five, with most scores falling within stanines four, five, and six. This scale is relatively new, being developed during World War II and coming into more

frequent use within the last several years. At present, stanine scores are not reported on ITBS in District #742.

V. INTERPRETATION, UTILIZATION OF TEST DATA

1) Interpretation of Scoring Systems: In order to make the most use of testing data, it is important to know the benefits and limitations of standardized scores.

   a. The GE and AE scores are developmental scores. They give an estimate of where the student's skill level is in each area, of the amount of growth made from one testing to the next, and they can be averaged for comparisons between groups.

   The GE score should *not* be taken as an indicator of where in a graded system the student should be placed. A fifth-grader, for example, scoring a GE of 70 in reading is in the 90th *percentile*, and should be considered in the top 10% of his class, not as being ready to do seventh grade work. This student scored the same as an average seventh-grader would have, if the seventh-grader had been given the fifth grade test. Also, identical grade equivalent scores on the sub-tests do not necessarily mean equally good performance in relation to the rest of the group. Identical GE scores may have different percentile rankings.

   b. Percentile rankings and stanine scores are to be used to tell the standing of the student in relation to a reference or norm group. ITBS will provide percentile norms for several reference groups, as well as for student of similar measured academic aptitude.

2) Utilization of Test Results: Data from standardized tests is never a replacement for the teacher's judgment, but test results can be a systematic tool for the teacher to use in identifying areas where a student may need more or a different kind of instruction. Each student has different abilities and backgrounds which a teacher uses to develop objectives and expectancies for the student. When test results, then, do not agree with a teacher's expectations, reasons for the discrepancies should be examined.

   The pupil profile chart, a recording of GE scores from one testing to the next, is useful in measuring growth and comparing yearly gains to expected gains (10 points may be less than what is expected of a talented pupil, and too much for one with less aptitude).

Once a skills area has been identified as a problem area, a more detailed analysis may reveal a specific source of difficulty. ITBS provides a skills classification for each sub-test except vocabulary, with a listing of the test items intended to reflect those skills. A comparison of the student's responses to the items may give clues to specific difficulties, although the comparison should be supplemented by informal, teacher-made tests. The skills classification is not absolute or all-encompassing, but is intended to be used only as an aid in helping the teacher make the best judgment.

QUESTIONS:

1) The full name and purpose of the ITBS is:
   a. Iowa Tests of Background Skills — a readiness test.
   b. Iowa Tests of Background Skills — a cognitive abilities test.
   c. Iowa Tests of Basic Skills — an achievement test.
   d. Iowa Test of Basic Skills — reading abilities test.

2) ITBS, Forms 5 and 6, may be appropriately used in:
   a. grades 5 and 6.
   b. grades K-14.
   c. grades 1-8.
   d. grades 3-7.

3) The five (5) subject areas included in the ITBS are:
   a. Social Studies.
   b. Work-Study Skills.
   c. Reading Speed.
   d. Vocabulary.
   e. Mathematics.
   f. Reading Comprehension.
   g. American History.
   h. Language Arts.

4) A sixth grade boy with a GE of 46 in the math subtest has:
   a. 46 of 100 questions correct:
   b. performed at the 46th percentile.
   c. growth earned of 46.
   d. scored at the level of the fourth grade — sixth month.

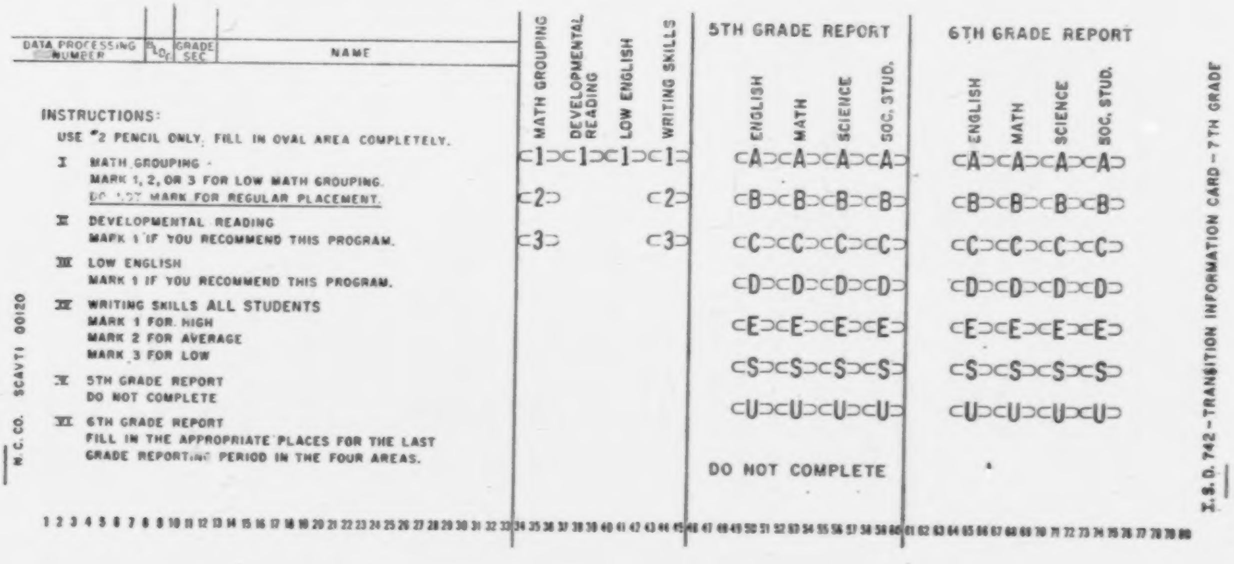
5) A percentile rank of 30 indicates that:
   a. the student answered 30% of the questions correctly.
   b. the students' score was the same or higher than 30% of the students of the same grade level in the norm group.
   c. the student scored in the top 30% of the norm group.
   d. the student answered 70% of the questions correctly.

6) GE scores are *most* useful to:
   a. measure student growth between testings.
   b. compare sub-test scores.
   c. evaluate the curriculum.
   d. determine letter grades for students.

APPENDIX H

TRANSITION CARD

The transition card, shown below, is pre-punched with student name and number and sent to all sixth grade teachers in March. The teacher makes her recommendations and completes the grades sections for mark sense punching upon return. She also indicates on the card which junior high school the student will be attending. This information is collated with other student information on file (standardized test results, attendance, special education programming, organic handicaps) and printouts are sent to the junior high school counselors.



DATA PROCESSING NUMBER	BLDG.	GRADE SEC	NAME

INSTRUCTIONS:

USE #2 PENCIL ONLY. FILL IN OVAL AREA COMPLETELY.

I MATH GROUPING -
MARK 1, 2, OR 3 FOR LOW MATH GROUPING.
DO NOT MARK FOR REGULAR PLACEMENT.

II DEVELOPMENTAL READING
MARK 1 IF YOU RECOMMEND THIS PROGRAM.

III LOW ENGLISH
MARK 1 IF YOU RECOMMEND THIS PROGRAM.

IV WRITING SKILLS ALL STUDENTS
MARK 1 FOR HIGH
MARK 2 FOR AVERAGE
MARK 3 FOR LOW

V 5TH GRADE REPORT
DO NOT COMPLETE

VI 6TH GRADE REPORT
FILL IN THE APPROPRIATE PLACES FOR THE LAST GRADE REPORTING PERIOD IN THE FOUR AREAS.

MATH GROUPING	DEVELOPMENTAL READING	LOW ENGLISH	WRITING SKILLS	5TH GRADE REPORT ENGLISH	MATH	SCIENCE	SOC. STUD.	6TH GRADE REPORT ENGLISH	MATH	SCIENCE	SOC. STUD.
⊂1⊃	⊂1⊃	⊂1⊃	⊂1⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃	⊂A⊃
⊂2⊃			⊂2⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃	⊂B⊃
⊂3⊃			⊂3⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃	⊂C⊃
				⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃	⊂D⊃
				⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃	⊂E⊃
				⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃	⊂S⊃
				⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃	⊂U⊃

DO NOT COMPLETE

M.C. CO. SCAVTI 00120

I.S.D. 742 - TRANSITION INFORMATION CARD - 7TH GRADE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80

Computer Printout Format from Transition Card Data

(for Junior High)

```
                                                                                              Days
DPA        NAME        BIRTH      —TEACHER RECOMMENDATIONS—          ————GRADES 3-73————Absent
________________________________________________________________________________________________

0676002    Pupil 1      9-60      H 1    MG 1    DR 1    LE    WS 2      ENG 6  MATH 6  SCI 6  SOC 6  1.0
                                  VOC RDG ———LANGUAGE——— WORK STUDY SKILLS ——ARITH——
                                           1    2    3    4   TOT   1    2    3   TOT   1    2   TOT COMP
                   04-72      GE  4.7  4.1  3.9  4.1  4.2  2.8  3.8  5.1  3.3  5.3  4.6  5.5  4.7  5.1  4.5
                   04-72      P    28   14   15   17   20   05   11   34   06   39   21   44   25   34   20

                              LEVEL A        LEVEL B         LEVEL C            LEVEL D        LEVEL E
                                                      22222222222222200000000

                   ORG HDCP      ————SCORES————                     ————PRIORITIES————
                                 I R M P S S A V B S                  I R M P S S A V B S
                                  5.0 5.3  94 34  10 2                                  1

0677001    Pupil 2     12-60      H 1    MG      DR      LE    WS 1      ENG 6  MATH 6  SCI 6  SOC 6   .0

                                  VOC RDG ———LANGUAGE——— WORK STUDY SKILLS ——ARITH——
                                           1    2    3    4   TOT   1    2    3   TOT   1    2   TOT COMP
                   04-72      GE  7.6  8.0  7.1  8.2  6.3  6.8  7.1  6.8  6.6  7.6  7.0  7.6  5.4  6.5  7.2
                   04-72      P    90   93   76   89   61   69   78   77   72   88   83   91   41   73   86

0678207    Pupil 3     11-60      H 2    MG      DR      LE    WS 1      ENG 6  MATH 6  SCI 6  SOC 6   .0

                                  VOC RDG ———LANGUAGE——— WORK STUDY SKILLS ——ARITH——
                                           1    2    3    4   TOT   1    2    3   TOT   1    2   TOT COMP
                   04-72      GE  4.2  4.0  5.3  3.4  6.0  3.6  4.6  5.1  4.9  3.9  4.6  5.8  4.1  5.0  4.6
                   04-72      P    19   24   41   07   56   15   26   34   31   10   21   52   14   31   22

                                LEVEL A          LEVEL B            LEVEL C             LEVEL D      LEVEL E
                                2000022    22202022000000000  222220222222222022200    2000000
```

Appendix I

Special Education Pupil Information from Computer Printout

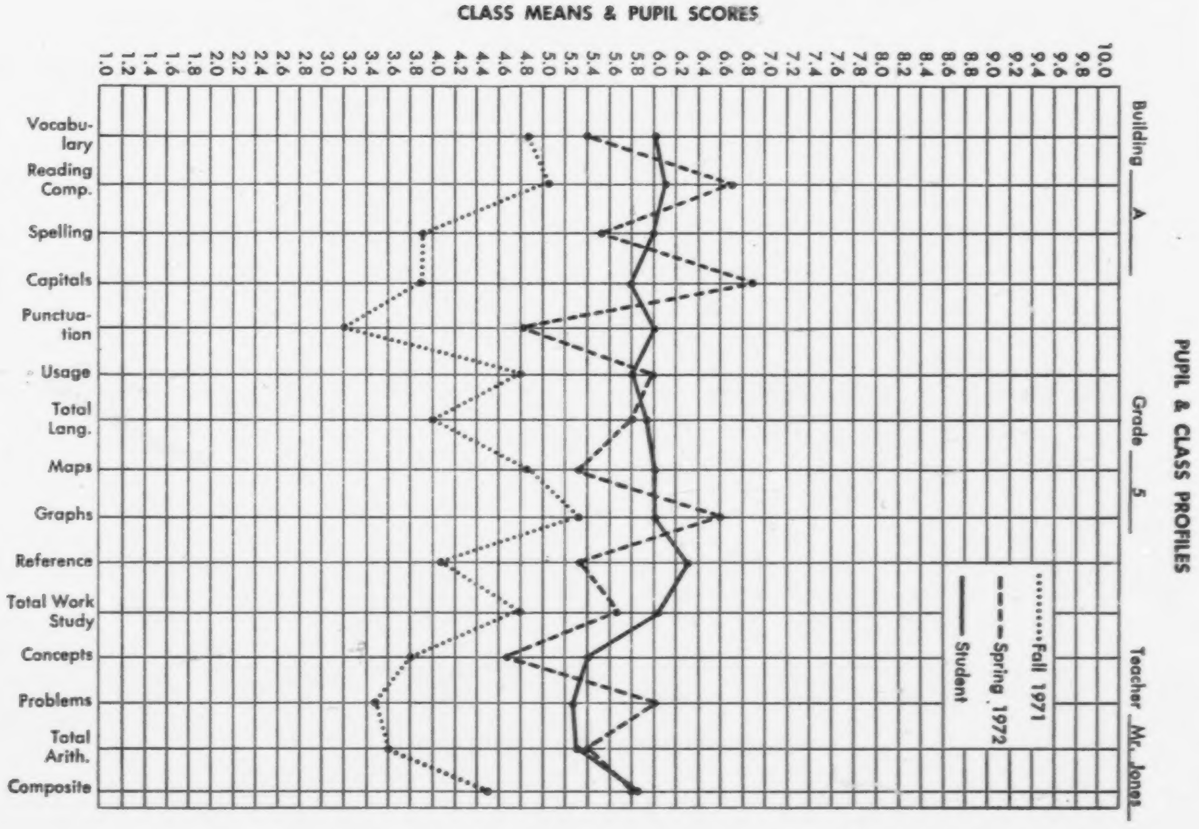
CENTRAL DPA	NAME	AGE		ITBS		VOC	RDG	LANGUAGE					WORK STUDY SKILLS				ARITH			
								1	2	3	4	TOT	1	2	3	TOT	1	2	TOT	COMP
0277203	Pupil 1	08	09	H 3 IQ			15.5		ADDRESS						GR 301					
0387007	Pupil 2	08	05	H 2 IQ			10.0		ADDRESS						GR 302					
0383303	Pupil 3	08	01	H 2 IQ			16.5		ADDRESS						GR 201					
0383605	Pupil 4	08	04	H 3 IQ			5.0		ADDRESS						GR 201					
0390605	Pupil 5	08	05	H 2 IQ			10.5		ADDRESS						GR 301					
0392604	Pupil 6	11	01	H 2 IQ			5.0		ADDRESS						GR 601					
0392604				04-72	GE	4.7	5.6	4.6	5.4	4.2	4.5	4.7	5.7	7.2	5.7	6.2	6.1	3.6	5.0	5.2
0392604				04-72	P	28	47	27	44	20	28	28	49	83	49	64	60	9	31	37
0392607	Pupil 7	09	04	H 4 IQ			11.0		ADDRESS						GR 301					
0393305	Pupil 8	08	02	H 4 IQ			20.0		ADDRESS						GR 301					
0394002	Pupil 9	11	?0	H 3 IQ			7.0		ADDRESS						GR 602					
0394002				04-72	GE	4.2	3.3	2.1	3.5	4.0	3.6	3.3	7.0	5.6	4.4	5.7	5.9	5.2	5.6	4.4
0394002				04-72	P	19	4	1	8	17	15	5	81	47	18	51	54	35	48	17
0395703	Pupil 10	06	11	H 3 IQ			44.0		ADDRESS						GR 101					
0397305	Pupil 11	08	11	H 2 IQ			7.5		ADDRESS						GR 302					
0398404	Pupil 12	11	?0	H 2 IQ			4.0		ADDRESS						GR 602					
0398404				04-72	GE	4.4	3.1	2.7	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.2	4.9	3.3	5.3	4.5	3.9	3.5	3.7	3.8
0398404				04-72	P	23	3	4	5	7	15	4	29	6	39	19	8	5	5	6
0399803	Pupil 13	09	01	H 2 IQ		076	2.0		ADDRESS						GR 401					
0399803				10-71	GE	2.1	3.2	2.2	2.5	3.9	1.7	2.6	2.1	1.9	2.8	2.3	2.6	2.0	2.3	2.5
0399803				04-72	GE	2.1	1.4	2.4	3.2	3.3	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.1	2.7	2.4	2.3
0399803				04-72	P	9	1	14	36	38	28	25	16	26	23	16	2	10	7	5

Title I Report from Computer Printout

CENTRAL GRADE 1 AGE		NAME	GRADE	COMP SCORE	READING	MATH	WORK HABITS	BEHAV ADJ	NUTRI HEALTH	FINAL SCORE
Yr	Mn									
7	9	Pupil 1	1	5	25	25	5	0	0	60
8	0	Pupil 2	1	5	15	15	5	5	5	50
6	8	Pupil 3	1	20	0	0	5	5	0	30
7	9	Pupil 4	1	20	15	15	5	5	5	65
8	9	Pupil 5	1	5	25	25	10	10	0	75
7	2	Pupil 6	1	5	25	25	5	5	0	65
8	1	Pupil 7	1	20	25	25	10	10	5	95
7	1	Pupil 8	1	5	15	15	5	0	0	40

INTERVAL	FREQUENCY	COM FREQ	PERCENTAGE
0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0
20	0	0	0
30	0	0	0
40	1	1	12.50
50	1	2	12.50
60	1	3	12.50
70	3	6	37.50
80	1	7	12.50
90	0	7	0
100	1	8	12.50

GRADE MEAN 60.00 S 480.00 8.00


PUPIL & CLASS PROFILES
Building A
Grade 5
Teacher Mr. Jones
Fall 1971
Spring 1972
Student
CLASS MEANS & PUPIL SCORES
1.0
1.2
1.4
1.6
1.8
2.0
2.2
2.4
2.6
2.8
3.0
3.2
3.4
3.6
3.8
4.0
4.2
4.4
4.6
4.8
5.0
5.2
5.4
5.6
5.8
6.0
6.2
6.4
6.6
6.8
7.0
7.2
7.4
7.6
7.8
8.0
8.2
8.4
8.6
8.8
9.0
9.2
9.4
9.6
9.8
10.0
Vocabulary
Reading Comp.
Spelling
Capitals
Punctuation
Usage
Total Lang.
Maps
Graphs
Reference
Total Work Study
Concepts
Problems
Total Arith.
Composite

COUNSELING, CONSULTING, OR DEVELOPMENTAL GUIDANCE? TOWARD AN ANSWER

Don Bender*

The continuing controversy in the field of elementary school guidance over the role and function of the elementary guidance worker may never be resolved. There is strong evidence that teachers, administrators, and elementary counselors see the elementary guidance worker primarily as a remedial, crisis-oriented counselor.

Previous Studies

Hart (1961) asked teachers in 38 school districts employing elementary counselors to indicate from a list of 41 duties a counselor's most important functions. The teachers ranked counseling pupils with learning, physical, social, and emotional problems as the counselor's primary function. Smith and Eckerson (1966) report that over 75 per cent of 5,000 principals surveyed said their child development consultant (CDC) worked more with children than with teachers and parents, and indicated that children's emotional-social problems was one of the areas receiving the most attention from the CDC's.

McCreary and Miller (1966) surveyed 175 counselors, 118 elementary school principals, and 312 teachers in California schools employing elementary counselors. Both administrators and counselors ranked counseling with children as the most important function of the elementary counselor. To discover how elementary school principals perceive counselors, Shertzer and Lundy (1964) sent a questionnaire to a stratified sample of 300 elementary school principals in Indiana. One aspect of that study sought to answer the question: "What guidance services should be provided by the elementary school counselor?" The results indicated that the image of the elementary school counselor projected by the elementary school administrator is much like the image of the secondary school counselor. Remedial, preventive, and problem-solving activities were emphasized; and the concept of developmental guidance was not expressed.

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It is possible that this research evidences a lack of knowledge and a bit of naivete on the part of those surveyed concerning the concept of developmental guidance and the nature of the consulting role as practiced by well-rounded developmental guidance workers in the elementary school. In retrospect, it seems reasonable to predict that when one surveys relatively unsophisticated teachers and administrators on what the role of the elementary counselor should be, they would be influenced by what they know about the traditional role of counselors in the secondary schools of the country. That role is, for the most part, crisis-centered, informational, and remedial.

A Plan to Resolve the Issue

It would seem that if teachers and administrators were made knowledgeable about the role and function of developmentally oriented guidance workers and then exposed to guidance workers functioning in that role, the experience might help resolve the issue of relative emphasis on counseling or developmentally oriented consulting.

Just such an educational effort was made in the Duluth, Minnesota, school system in preparation for the practicum experience of elementary guidance workers trained in an Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) Guidance Institute conducted at the University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD), during the 1968-69 academic year.

An intensive effort was made to solicit the cooperation of the Duluth system and to consult with its administrators in planning the practicum. A series of meetings were held with the superintendent, the director of elementary education, and principals in the system. The developmental point of view and its implementation were carefully explained. The annual Fall Workshop for the system's elementary teachers was built around the idea of developmental guidance; Ralph Ojemann was invited to lecture and demonstrate his approach to understanding human behavior. Extensive materials were provided for the teachers to peruse and the system's two regular elementary guidance workers were on hand to answer questions.

In preparation for the placement of the guidance interns from the institute throughout the city's schools, meetings were held with the staff of each school including, where possible, other school specialists. The teachers met their interns and were given an opportunity to ask how the elementary guidance worker might benefit all the children of the school. Since the educational experiences of the trainees were intentionally structured to focus first on the developmental and consulting roles, and later on individual and group counseling, the intern's answers were focused around the help he could give through consulting and developmental guidance.

The consulting role for which the interns were trained centers around the idea that consulting takes place between two professionals, each bringing unique skills to bear upon the problem of another.

The UMD interns at this time were prepared to suggest and implement behavior modification techniques and to make recommendations concerning individual children or classroom problems on the basis of the results of informally assessing children's personal concerns and classroom learning climates.

During the following 10 weeks, the interns served each school approximately two days a week. Their work consisted mainly of observing in classrooms, conducting developmental guidance units (DGU's) in classrooms, using various informal instruments to assess classroom learning climates and student relationships, and consulting with teachers. Even though individual remedial counseling was to be the center of focus during the coming summer practicum, individual problem cases were accepted and seen by the interns. These cases were dealt with under close supervision by the practicum supervisor. The intent was not to distort the elementary guidance worker's role into a nonremedial counseling one, but to avoid loading the worker with remedial cases so that the developmental role could be implemented and evaluated.

Developmental Guidance Units

A word of explanation is probably due about the developmental guidance units. Many of these units were developed by the enrollees prior to the practicum. Havighurst's (1948) developmental tasks of childhood were used as the framework to assure broad coverage of the cognitive and affective domains for each child. Materials available commercially were also extensively used as informal structuring devices for the DGU's. (See reference list for more information.)

Generally, a DGU is built around a single, short idea. For example, it is important for children to learn to make friends. How does one make friends? A game called "What Can I Do For You?" can help children learn part of the friend-making skill. Here, the guidance worker explains that not all children know how to make friends, but that one way the ice can be broken is for two children to exchange favors. The guidance worker can perhaps start out by choosing the teacher to exchange with. Then the teacher chooses a child and the game continues. The game can have many endings (flexibility is important), but one important area to deal with is how the children feel when they are chosen or when they have to decide whether or not they can do the favor. A few other important ideas are: How all children are unique in some way; how one deals with failure or success; how groups can learn to accomplish a task.

The DGU's are seen as one of the major tools through which a developmentally oriented guidance worker can present large numbers of children with sequentially organized learning situations that systematically deal with the developmental tasks of childhood. (Gum, 1969) (It may be of interest to "crisis-oriented counselors" that as the guidance worker came to be known and trusted by the children through his many DGU's, children sought him out for help with individual problems. Apparently, in the long run, the DGU approach would facilitate the counseling role.)

Evaluation

As a check on teacher satisfaction with the developmental guidance and consulting focus of the enrollees, a questionnaire was constructed* and distributed to a total of 406 teachers in the 28 schools (including 3 rural schools) served by the interns. Two hundred and ninety-one (72 per cent) useable questionnaires were returned.

Eight questions on the questionnaire asked teachers to rate the elementary guidance workers' effectiveness in the developmental guidance role; four questions dealt with effectiveness in the consulting role. The responses are summarized in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Teacher Responses Concerning the Elementary Guidance Worker's Developmental Role
(291 × 8 = 2,328 possible responses)

Response	Number of Responses	%
Very satisfactory Satisfactory	1,418	62
Somewhat satisfactory Unsatisfactory	158	7
Don't know	701	31
Total	2,277*	100

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*The questionnaire was constructed by Karlton D. Skindrud.

*Not all teachers responded to every question.

Table 2

Teacher Responses Concerning the Elementary Guidance Worker's Consulting Role (291 × 4 = 1,164 possible responses)

Response	Number of Responses	%
Very satisfactory Satisfactory	922	81
Somewhat satisfactory Unsatisfactory	63	6
Don't know	149	13
Total	1,134*	100

*Not all teachers responded to every question.

Although both roles were rated well by the teachers, the consulting role was seen as more effectively performed. Apparently, quite a few teachers (31 per cent) were not ready to judge the developmental role. This is not too surprising since the developmental guidance role was less familiar to both the interns and teachers, and because in the 10 weeks covered by the survey, the interns were sometimes unable to demonstrate this type of role in all classrooms, especially in the larger schools.

The teachers were also presented a list of 10 functions representing activities carried out by the elementary guidance worker during the 10-week winter practicum. They were asked to check those activities which, in their opinion, were most helpful to them or to their class. The teachers were also asked to check those procedures they would like to see the elementary guidance worker employ more often.

Inspection of Table 3 reveals that almost half the teachers felt that assessment of children's personal concerns and DGU's were most helpful to them or their students. Also seen as helpful by a sizable portion of the teachers were individual counseling, sociometrics, and group counseling. Gratifyingly enough, the data in Table 4 indicate that, for the most part, teachers would like to see more individual and group counseling as important functions in the elementary school.

Conclusion

It seems fairly clear from these results that, when carefully explained and skillfully carried out by elementary guidance workers, the developmental guidance and consulting role is readily accepted and considered useful by teachers—perhaps the most significant and influential force in the elementary school.

Table 3

Teacher Responses to Most Helpful Procedures of the Elementary Guidance Worker (N = 283*)

Function	Number of Responses	%
Anonymous assessment of children's personal concerns	134	47
Presentation of DGU's to class	127	45
Individual counseling	104	37
Assessment of classroom social relations	97	34
Group counseling	96	34
Role-playing in the classroom	78	27
Consultation regarding child management techniques	72	25
Anonymous assessment of classroom learning climate	61	22
Coordination of supplementary services within the building	46	16
Group guidance with parents	18	6

NOTE—Percents total more than 100 because teachers could respond to more than one function.

*Data were lost from one school (8 teachers).

Table 4

Teacher Responses to the Procedure They Would Like the Elementary Guidance Worker to Employ More Often (N = 283*)

Function	Number	%
Individual counseling	68	24
Group counseling	51	18
Presentation of DGU's to class	49	17
Role-playing in the classroom	42	15
Group guidance of parents	31	11
Anonymous assessment of children's personal concerns	30	11
Consultation regarding child management techniques	25	9
Anonymous assessment of classroom learning climate	21	7
Assessment of classroom social relationships	18	6
Coordination of supplementary services within the building	12	4

NOTE—Percents total more than 100 because teachers could respond to more than one function.

*Data were lost from one school (8 teachers).

Perhaps most important are the implications this survey has for counselor education. Since the ACES Elementary Subcommittee (Ohlsen, 1968) based its recommendations for elementary counselor education on a survey of principals and counselors, it is possible that the recommended standards invalidly reflect the attitudes and needs of the teachers and children of our nation's schools.

In order for elementary guidance to avoid the traps that have befallen secondary guidance it would seem appropriate that the field not become so identified with a counseling approach that it cannot broaden its emphasis without tremendous effort and great misunderstanding. Elementary school guidance workers with a developmental point of view should make a greater effort to inform others of their approach in order to facilitate recognition of a broad definition of the elementary guidance role.

It is also recommended that developmental guidance and consulting *both* be accepted as major functions of the elementary guidance worker and be combined into the overall role for guidance in the elementary school.

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A COMPARISON OF TWO PARENT EDUCATION MODELS

Sandra Campion*

Introduction and Overview of the Problem

The importance of the family on the social, emotional, and cognitive growth of the developing child has long been recognized by authorities in child development (Freud, 1938; Erickson, 1963; Satir, 1972; Gordon, 1970). Recent investigators agree that regardless of whether one accepts the position of Freud that a child's personality is formed in a *maturation process* by the age of eight; or the position of Solomon (1964), Skinner (1953), and Harlow (1958) that personality develops by an ou-going process of *environmental conditioning;* or the *cognitive-developmental* position of Piaget (1930) and Kohlberg (1969), who assume that personality is formed through an on-going process of organism-environment interaction, the importance of early childhood experiences and specifically the importance of the family experience are generally accepted. Despite these assumptions, most attempts to affect psychological development are aimed at adolescents and adults. Intervention at this rather late date continues despite the understanding that by this time behavior patterning and problem-solving style have been well established.

Recently, psychological workers have begun looking at the developing child as a target for change and the family system as the most appropriate intervention vehicle. Satir (1972) states:

> An infant coming into the world has no past, no experience in handling himself, no scale on which to judge his own worth. He must rely on the experiences he has with the people around him and the messages they give him about his worth as a person. For the first five or six years, the child's pot is formed by the family almost exclusively. (p. 24)

Satir recognized the enduring traces left by the family upon the child's "pot" or self-esteem. In self-fulfilling prophecies, future experiences are interpreted as conforming to the basic feelings of worth or worthlessness a child has developed in his early family experiences. A child with a feeling of worthlessness may experience many successes and yet feel a failure; a child certain of his worth may experience several setbacks and yet rise above them to continue along the path of success.

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Until recently, adults were expected to have parenting skills without any formal training. The high incidence rates of family breakdowns, runaway children, divorces, and other signs of family unhappiness, however, point to a need for more knowledge, understanding, and skills on the part of parents in dealing with family interactions. Because of this need, work is being done to help parents learn more about child growth and development, the importance of parent-child interaction and communication, roles and rules within the family, and a wide variety of other topics. Books, discussion groups, counseling groups, and classes aimed at teaching specific skills have been used as vehicles in reaching parents. In reviewing the wide range of education available to parents, Brim (1959) summarized:

> At present many organizations, both public and private, commercial and non-profit, at the national, state, and local level are engaged in educating parents about child rearing. Parents are counseled by physicians, clergymen, teachers, and nurses. They participate in groups discussing child rearing which meet under the auspices of mental health, parent-teacher and other associations; read books, pamphlets, magazines, or newspaper columns; view films, plays, and television programs; and listen to lectures and radio programs, all concerned with educating them in child care. (p. 17)

Books, television, radio, lecture, etc., typify a mass media approach in which the parent is a passive recipient of "knowledge". In a newly emerging approach, the parent is an active participant in his education. Models for active participation by parents range from open ended discussion groups with nonprofessional leaders to structured skills building groups using trained leaders who follow selected outlines and cover specific topics.

In general, parent discussion groups are based on principles of group dynamics. The broad goals of a discussion group are to build a support system within the group to help parents in time of failure, stress, and success. Parents often discover they are not unique in having child rearing problems, and that they can help each other through a sharing process.

Skills oriented parent education has become increasingly popular. Professionals and parents realize that positive family interactions and communications, necessary for a child's social and emotional development, do not happen naturally in all families (Satir, 1972; Jackson, 1959; and Watzlawick, 1967). Typical of skills teaching approaches is Gordon's Parent Effectiveness Training (1970). The model encourages active participation of the parent participants as they practice new communication skills in a group format.

All family education models share the common assumptions that the family is important in the development of the young child and that parents can learn behaviors to help in this process. Auerbach (1968) summarized the underlying assumptions for parent education:

> Based on the belief that parents are the key figures in developing their children's healthy personalities, parent education is offered as "primary prevention" in the hope of avoiding emotional and social maladjustment in children. Since prevention carries with it a connotation of action, parent education is actually intervention to help parents function more effectively in their parental role. (p. 3)

She emphasized the need for a program of parent education to have goals that include presenting the parents with new knowledge, helping them to look at and question their typical attitudes and behavior patterns, and helping them to learn more effective methods of interacting and communicating with their children.

Statement of the Problem

There is a paucity of reliable evaluation data on parent education programming (Hereford, 1963). Many parent education programs are conducted assuming that they "help" but with no objective research as to who they help, how they help, or if they help at all. Hereford (1963) underlines the need for evaluation of parent education programs:

> Very little is known about the real effectiveness of most attempts at parent education. . . . The development of an educational program in mental health is only half the job — the other half is to determine its effectiveness. (p. 8)

Hereford stated that the huge outlays of time and money into parent education programs warrant an evaluation as to their effectiveness.

Investigators in parent education face several difficulties inherent in the topic because of its complexity. Among the many questions that need to be answered are what is to be evaluated, how is it to be evaluated, and how does one account for the numerous variables involved. Auerbach (1968) described the difficulties and complexities in evaluating parent education programs:

> The results of various forms of parent education are difficult to measure and so far have not leant themselves to productive evaluative research. The factors involved are complex and difficult to separate and define. People participating in any one type of program are also being exposed to many other influences that have bearing on their relationships with their children. (p. 12)

Hereford, in agreement with Auerbach, recognized the problems involved in research on parent education; but he maintained that the difficulties inherent in evaluative research on educational efforts by no means diminish the necessity of such research.

Purpose of this Study

The purpose of this study is to evaluate two methods of parent education from the active parent participant model. One method, combining ideas from Adlerian and Gordon approaches adapted by Koenig (1972), is a topical approach covering identification of problems, teaching active listening skills, developing problem-solving skills, and predicting logical consequences of behavior. The other, Family Communication Systems (Benson and Berger, 1971; Mease and Hollinbeck, 1971) includes lessons on communication skills, parenting styles, family rules, problem-solving, goal setting, and systems analysis skills. The measurement and evaluation problems inherent in this type of research limit its generalizability, but the necessity for empirical testing of the impact of parent education supports its implementation. Supporting the need for research on parent education programs, Dr. G. Dean Miller of the Pupil Personnel Services of the Minnesota Department of Education secured ESEA, Title III funds for this study.

Organization of this Paper

In the first section the rationale for evaluating parent education is established. A statement of the problem and the purpose of the study are also introduced.

In the second section lierature is reviewed on parent education, specifically data is presented on family influence upon children and on various parent education programs.

In the third section a description of the model to evaluate two methods of parent education is presented. Also included are the design of the study, the instruments used, the hypotheses tested, the statistical procedures followed, and the limitations of the study.

The results from this study are presented in section four and analyzed relating them to support or non-support for the specific hypotheses. Finally, in the last section the results are discussed, conclusions are drawn, and implications are presented for future research.

SURVEY OF SUPPORTIVE LITERATURE

This section has been organized into two major parts. In the first part literature is reviewed that deals with the influence of parental attitudes, family communications, and child-rearing methods on a number of variables in the child's development. This section provides a rationale for parent education. In the second section literature is reviewed that deals with the results of specific attempts to educate parents, thus moving from the rationale to the action intervention.

Parental Influence on Children

The literature dealing with parental influence on the developing child is vast *(Review of Child Development Research* by Hoffman and Hoffman, 1964 and 1966). This section specifically focuses on the influence of parental communication, attitudes, and child-rearing methods because these areas provide the rationale for parent education.

Parental Communication

Family communication involves interaction. Its influence on all members of the family, including the developing child, has received increased emphasis in recent years (Jackson, 1965; Berne, 1961; Haley, 1962; Watzlawick et al., 1967; and Satir, 1964). Sorrells and Ford (1969) stated:

> Any behavior which takes place in the presence of another person has communication value. . . . All communication, verbal or non-verbal, reiterates, clarifies, or re-defines the nature of the relationship between the participants. . . . Thus, all behavior (in the presence of another person) and all communication (even silence) has interactional significance so that communication, behavior, and interaction are treated as synonymous. (p. 153)

Haley (1962, 1963) and Szasz (1961) view much of psychopathology as resulting from ineffective communication patterns. In comparing normal and clinic families, Haley (1964) found that normal families tended to use a greater number of interaction patterns than did pathological families. Haley (1963) and Riskin (1963, 1964) found that in families repetitive communication patterns evolved over time, and that these patterns served to regulate the equilibrium of the family system. Haley and Riskin went on to state that a family's typical patterns of communication are indicative of the typical interactional patterns of behavior in that family.

Marcus, Offer, Blatt, and Gratch (1966); Leighton, Stollak, and Ferguson (1971); and Bugental, Love, Kaswan, and April (1971) compared normal and clinical populations and found differences in the communication patterns used by these two groups. Marcus et al. found effective two-way communication in the families with nondisturbed adolescents. This permitted mothers to understand their children's self-descriptions and children to understand the mothers' expectations for them. In families with a disturbed adolescent, the mothers had difficulty understanding the patients' self-descriptions and the patients did not understand their mothers' expectations for them. Siblings of disturbed adolescents fell somewhere between the normal adolescents and the disturbed adolescents in their ability to communicate with their mothers.

Bugental et al. analyzed parental messages for content in the verbal, vocal, and visual channels and found significantly more conflict represented in the messages of mothers with disturbed children than in the messages of mothers with normal children. No differences were found between the messages of fathers of normal and disturbed families. Sons of mothers producing conflicting messages were found to be more aggressive in behavior at school than were the sons of nonconflicting mothers. These findings lend support to the findings presented by Marcus et al. that normal families have clearer, more effective communication patterns than do clinic families.

Leighton et al. (1971) found that in normal families, the father was the dominant member and his role was accepted by the family. In the clinic family, however, the mother was found to be the dominant member on the basis of total speaking time and frequency of speaking. Leighton concluded that frequent interruptions in these clinic families indicated that mother dominance was not acceptable to family members and that the mother had to continually exert herself in order to maintain her position. Instances of simultaneous speaking were significantly greater in clinic as compared to normal families, indicating more conflict and less communication clarity in pathological families. The clinic families also exhibited a significantly greater number of interruptions and were less able to use democratic techniques in arriving at family decisions.

In the previous studies comparing communication in normal and clinical families, the findings clearly showed that more interaction patterns were used in normal families; that less conflicting and more effective communication took place in normal families; and that more simultaneous speaking, interruptions, and mother dominance took place in clinic families. A question that must be raised in response to these findings that indicate differences in communication styles between clinic and normal families is whether ineffective communication caused the problems or whether the family problems caused the defective communication. Sorrells and Ford (1969) assume that communication, behavior, and interaction are synonymous, therefore, changing the communication patterns in families would necessarily affect relationship patterns. More research is needed in the area dealing with family communication and its relationship to family functioning.

Another question raised by these studies concerns the father's influence in normal and dysfunctional family communication. Bugental et al. did not find the father's influence significant, whereas Leighton et al. found normal family communication requires both parents with the father assuming the dominant role. Marcus et al. completely ignored the father's influence because of the mother's apparently dominant position in child-rearing or possibly because of easier data gathering with mothers. Because of conflicting findings, more research is needed to analyze the influence of the father on the family.

Ginott (1965) stated the importance of family verbal communications on the developing child's self esteem. He assumed that if a parent responds descriptively rather than judgmentally in response to a child's behavior, the child will develop higher levels of self-esteem. To test the "descriptive-judgmental concept", Miller (1971) found a relationship between maternal descriptiveness and the child's self-esteem for inner city children. He failed to find a similar relationship for suburban mothers and children. He explained this noting that inner city mothers often must assume the role of both disciplinarian and nurturant parent. In suburban situations, the "descriptive-judgmental" effect is evidently lessened because the mother shares the responsibility of child-rearing with the father. The levels of empathy, genuineness, and positive regard of the mother toward the child were also found to be significantly related to the child's self-image for both inner city and suburban children.

Parental Attitudes

In addition to finding that family communication patterns do affect the developing child, researchers have found parental attitudes toward child-rearing to be important. This assumes that parental attitudes form one of the bases influencing children's behavior. Armentrout (1971) reported a review of many inconsistent findings in research in the area of parental attitudes and resulting child behavior as well as his own research in the area. He summarized:

> While some studies (e.g., Peterson, Becker, Hellmer, Shoemaker, and Quay, 1959; Peterson, Becker, Shoemaker, Luria, and Hellmer, 1961) have suggested that parents of clinic children are more maladjusted, hostile, rejecting, autocratic, inconsistent, and reliant on physical punishment than are parents of nonclinic children, others (e.g., Lapray, 1967; Leton, 1958; Zuckerman, Barrett, and Bragiel, 1960) failed to find stable relationships between measures of parental attitudes and indexes of children's adjustment. (p. 278)

Armentrout looked at the influence of parental attitudes on internalization behavior, operationally defined as shyness, withdrawal, and self-depreciation in children. He found that studies reported conflicting results. Becker, Peterson, Luria, Shoemaker, and Hellmer (1962); Peterson et al. (1961); and Stone and Rowley (1965) reported no correlation between internalization behaviors and parental attitudes. On the other hand, Peterson et al. (1959) found internalization independent of maternal attitudes but related to paternal autocratic attitudes and lack of concern. In his original research, Armentrout found internalization to be inversely related to parental acceptance, as perceived and reported by children.

Armentrout also reviewed studies on externalization behaviors, operationally defined as aggressiveness, hyperactivity, and antisocial actions in children. He reported that Peterson et al. (1959) found externalization behaviors were related to general maladjustment in mothers and to permissiveness and ineffective discipline in fathers. Becker et al. (1962) found externalization to be related to physical punishment and general hostility by parents, thus supporting findings that indicate externalization behaviors in children are related to parental attitudes. Peterson et al. (1961) and Stone and Rowley (1965), however, found no relationships between externalization behaviors and parental attitudes. Armentrout's original research indicated externalization was inversely related to parental acceptance and positively related to parental control, thus supporting those findings that indicated a relationship between externalization behaviors and parental attitudes.

Armentrout's reporting indicates the need for more research in the area of parental attitudes and child behavior to determine the causes of the wide range of findings. The type of child behavior studied, the specific parent attitude measured, and how parent attitudes were measured all influenced the results and require further research to expose clearer correlations.

Friedman (1969) investigated possible relationships between children's social behaviors (leadership, conformity, anxiety, aggression, etc.) and parental attitudes as measured by Hereford's 75-item, five-scale *Parent Attitude Survey.* The one significant correlation found was between the child's leadership rating and parental agreement on the child trust scale. This scale measured the degree to which the parents perceived their child as an autonomous individual.

Parental Child-Rearing Methods

In studies on the effect of parenting styles on child development, researchers have established that parental influence does affect the cognitive development of the child as indicated by measures of intelligence and school achievement. Bing (1963) and Hurley (1965) found relationships between patterns of child-rearing and cognitive ability in children. Bing found that a mother's mode of interacting with her child led to differing cognitive abilities, specifically, verbal, spatial, or numerical ability in the child. High verbal ability in children was often associated with a close mother-child relationship and a high degree of interaction. Mothers of the high verbal group studied were high on measures of helping behaviors and exerted pressure on their children for improvement; while mothers of children indicating high nonverbal tendencies, spatial or numerical, allowed their children more freedom to experiment on their own without restrictions or control. The findings of Bing's study call attention to the importance and far reaching implications of the mother-child relationship on the developing child, however, the absence of any data concerning the father-child relationship indicates a need for more research in this area.

Hurley (1965) conducted a study on the global I.Q. measurements of children rather than specific areas of strength. Both mothers and fathers responded to a questionnaire and had two interviews to obtain a parental rating on an acceptance-rejection variable of behavior. Hurley found an inverse relationship between the I.Q. scores of third grade children and measures of parental rejection of their children. Hurley's findings support the findings of Bing that parenting styles do affect the cognitive development of children.

In contrast to the two preceding studies, McIntire and Payne (1971) found no relationship between scales of family functioning and the I.Q. of the child. They did find, however, that correlations between intrafamilial functioning and pupils' school achievement were significant. McIntire and Payne also found that intra-familial functioning, characterized by the social relationships, is at least equivalent to the pupils' I.Q. in predicting school achievement.

In support of the position that family functioning influences school achievement, Morrow and Wilson (1961) found that high achievers' parents engage in more sharing of activities, ideas, and confidences; are more approving, trusting, affectionate, and encouraging with respect to achievement; and are less restrictive and severe. In comparing the family relations of bright high achieving and underachieving high school boys, Morrow and Wilson did not find the expected; that is, underachievers' families did not show more overprotectiveness, more high-pressure for achievement, more irregularity of home routine, differences in goals for their youngsters, or differences in sociological factors such as parents' marital status, current occupation, or number and ages of other children.

In this section, studies of parental influence on the developing child have reported inconclusive, even contradictory, findings on the importance of family communications, parental attitudes, and parenting styles on the emotional adjustment, behavior, intelligence, and school achievement of children. Part of the problem and cause of inconsistancies in the findings may be due to measurement difficulties. Self-reports on parental behavior, direct observational ratings, or children's reports of parental behaviors may not be sensitive enough to produce significant findings. Another obvious factor in the mixed findings reported is the factor of multiple causation for any child behavior. Brim (1965) provided the rationale for continued research on these variables:

> It is that the relation shown in scientific studies between a given type of parent behavior and a particular characteristic of the child's personality is always low. The relation is not strong in any study. True, one could argue that this does not mean the influence of any type of behavior is as weak as it seems, but rather that our ideas and research procedures are inadequate. To some extent this

> must be true. But is hardly permits us to ignore the probability that the relation between any given act of a parent, and a given personality characteristic of a child will *always* be low; no matter how purely conceived or measured, because the characteristic involved is a product of more than just one cause. (p. 47)

However, even with these limitations, most authorities agree that parents have a profound influence on the developing child; and this assumption is the basis of all forms of parent education. As researchers continue to discover new findings about the influence of family communications, parent attitudes, and parenting styles on the child, increased understanding and knowledge will give new form and direction to parent education.

Literature Related to Parent Education

Attempts to educate parents are futile unless one believes that parents can learn, change, and profit from education. This section reviews literature that deals with attempts to educate parents for child-rearing. An informative and well done summary of parent education can be found in the book *Education for Child Rearing* by Orville G. Brim (1965). In his book, Brim evaluated several attempts at parent education and called for more evaluative studies in this area. The present investigator is thankful for the overview and recommends it to any reader interested in a critical analysis and historical background on parent education.

Mass-Media Parent Education

Attempts to educate parents through the mass-media have received many critical evaluations, dealing not so much with the content, as with the instructional method. Critics claim that mass-media approaches to parent education do not result in changed attitudes or behaviors on the part of parents. In voicing this opinion, Auerbach (1968) stated:

> Education through the various forms of the mass media is a broadside approach, offered on as wide a basis as possible *in the hope that* it will meet the needs of those who hear or read it. There is no feedback to show what the "consumer" takes from it, or what use he makes of it, and he cannot ask questions to clarify what he does not understand. (p. 12)

Hereford (1963) also criticized mass-media attempts to impart factual knowledge as stopping short of the purpose of parent education. He claimed:

> Since the ultimate goal in any attempt at educating parents in the parental role is to change the parent's behavior in his relations with his child, merely providing

> the parent with factual information and knowledge is not enough. . . . The main problem lies in those parental difficulties which stem not from ignorance but from attitudes, feelings, and emotions. (p. 4)

Brim (1965), however, defended mass-media parent education in terms of its cumulative effect, and because a parent can take from it exactly what he needs at the moment. In supporting the mass-media Brim suggested:

> . . . [T]he mass media, in transmitting information about human development to parents, tend to have a cumulative effect so that from one generation to the next, significant change in knowledge and attitude occurs without this effect being measurable in any single experimental evaluation on a mass media program. . . . A particular parent, in response to some concern which has unpredictably arisen in his child care tasks, is ready for information relevant to his question; information has become necessary and meaningful at this particular time in his parental career. At this moment relevant information can produce an increment in his knowledge, a change in his point of view, a shift in his attitudes, so that his child rearing henceforth is altered. Such instances, multiplied by the millions, can easily account for part of the shifts in childrearing practices in the directions suggested by professional groups through the mass media during the past decades. (p. vi-vii)

Taking into account both the limitations of the mass-media (e.g., factual information only, lack of feedback from the public, need to be general rather than specific, etc.) and its advantages (e. g., inexpensive, cumulative, readily available to a motivated parent, etc.) one cannot dismiss its importance and its potential as a means of reaching parents. Parents discussing a book or television program on child-rearing may come very close to operating as a group in discussing and exchanging ideas. The present investigator believes that until more effective means have been proven to work better and are in widespread use by parents, mass-media information is better than no form of parent education. Even parents involved in discussion group or skills building groups may wish to add to their knowledge of child development by utilizing mass media publications on children. There is no reason to discourage the gaining of factual knowledge even if it results in little behavioral change, which with our present means of measuring, cannot be conclusively proven.

Parent Education in an Unstructured Group

Parent education in a group setting has received favorable authoritative evluations. Brim (1965) summarized some arguments for and against the use of discussion groups. Arguments given in opposition to discussion groups include the high cost, the small and highly selected segment of the population served, and the fact that material discussed does not interest all members at the same time. On the positive side, Brim stated:

> . . . [G]roup discussion, even while remaining educational, while staying at the conscious level and not actively seeking to deal with parent anxieties or defenses, nevertheless can reduce anxiety and hostility and relax the defenses so that significant changes in attitude and feelings occur. This results from participation in free discussion with other parents about child rearing, which permits the parents to make full expression of their feelings under nonpunitive conditions . . . . The parents see their own feelings as being less deviant, as being nothing to be ashamed of, as being shared by a host of parents, so that if they are normal parents they are able to confront their feelings directly for the first time and deal with them in a constructive way. (p. 204)

Other favorable points mentioned by Brim are that discussion groups increase each member's set of possible solutions to child-rearing problems; and participation in a democratic group may enable parents to learn to be more democratic and expressive in dealing with their children.

Auerbach (1968) supported an unstructured method of group discussion lead by a nonprofessional because this model meets the needs of individual members of the group since they have the responsibility for forming and developing the content. Auerbach reported that this responsibility leads to increased involvement, which in turns leads to the possibility of changed attitudes and behaviors.

Research evaluating unstructured approaches to parent education, in which the participating parents had some responsibility for the course content, has resulted in various findings. Because of its superior research design, Hereford's (1963) study deserves special note and will be described more extensively than will be other studies. Hereford conducted a four-year study of seven research periods. Each research period evaluated four groups, one experimental group and three control groups. The experimental group attended six weekly, two-hour sessions with a non-professional leader. Hereford placed the responsibility of the discussion on the participants rather than on the leader, believing that "with responsibility come ego-involvement and participation on an emotional level that make possible attitudinal change" (p. 15).

In addition to the experimental group, Hereford used three control groups in each research period. The lecture control group attended six two-hour sessions with professional lecturers assigned a topic in keeping with the subject of the films used in the discussion group. The nonattendent control group registered but did not attend, and the random control group did not register but were selected at random from school files.

The parents attending the discussion groups changed significantly more than did any of the control groups on scales of confidence in parental role, causation of child's behavior, acceptance of child's behavior and feelings, mutual understanding, and mutual trust as measured by the *Parent Attitude Survey.* The children of parents who attended discussion meetings improved significantly more than did children of control group parents in the degree of acceptance received from their classmates when measured by sociometric data. Teachers' ratings of classroom adjustment, however, did not indicate differences between the groups. Parents in the discussion groups changed their attitudes and behavior significantly more than parents in the control groups, as indicated by responses to the Parent Interview. The number of discussion groups attended, the amount of verbal participation in the disucssions, and the frequency of personal references generally proved to be unrelated to the degree of attitudinal and behavioral change in the parents. The individual nonprofessional leader was not a factor influencing the results.

Hereford's study deserves special consideration because of the number of variables considered. He studied parental attitudes and the behavior of both parents and children. He also considered the amount of verbal participation exhibited by parents and the personality of the individual leader as possible sources of variation in the results. In his research design he used a variety of control groups, including one that considered the volunteer bias. Also, he used a large sample size to make a statistical analysis more profitable and correct for any random happenings. Keeping this design in mind as a model, one can investigate the results of other studies on parent education.

Gazda and Ohlsen (1966) did a study on group counseling involving parents of bright, underachieving boys. The parents met in groups for two one-hour sessions each week for eight weeks. Two of the three groups of parents demonstrated a significant increase in acceptance of self and others as measured by a projective test. The children improved on measures of congruency between their perceptions of self and ideal-self. The children also improved in behavior based on reports by parents and teachers. The findings of Gazda and Ohlsen support Hereford's results indicating parent education in a group setting can promote positive changes in both parents and children.

Shapiro (1956) found that parents attending a series of twelve discussion groups improved more than did control subjects on three of five scales measured: authortarianism, good judgment, and possessiveness. In contrast to Hereford's findings, Shapiro found that parents attending four or more meetings changed more than those who attended less. He also found that experimental subjects who initially held more desirable attitudes changed more than those holding less desirable ones. Shapiro, however, made no attempt to correlate parental change with change in children's behavior or change in the children's perceptions of their parents.

A study of mothers of children who were patients in a child psychiatry department was conducted by MacNamara (1963). For over two years, the mothers had weekly meetings with a psychiatric social worker concerning events in their dealings with their children and the feelings associated with these events. The results indicated that mothers became less anxious and developed a better relationship with their children. The results of mother attendance were good as far as the children's symptoms were conecrned. Unfortunately, this study relied on subjective evaluations entirely and lacked a control group to show that similar results might not happen as a result of time or chance.

In a study done by the Child Study Association of America and the Westport-Weston Mental Health Association in 1959, no statistically significant influences resulted on the characteristics of parent-decision making or a variety of other personal and social characteristics of those participating parents. The control group for this study was formed from the total number of people who wished to attend so both experimental and control subjects were self-selected. The parents in this study developed their own curriculum and discussed common problems they had in their daily experiences with their children. The findings of this study are in conflict with the positive findings reported by Hereford, Gazda and Ohlsen, Shapiro, and MacNamara. This may indicate the parent discussion groups did not produce a change, that the group did result in change but not on the varibles studied, that the statistical tests were not powerful enough for the small group size, or that the posttests might have been administered before the parents could absorb the content and apply it to the solution of their daily problems.

In an evaluation of Project ENABLE in 1967 to see whether low-income families could be reached by discussion groups, several results were found. The research involved about 11,600 personal interviews with parents and about 6,200 records of group attendence and service to the parents. It was found that participants were slightly more likely to be communicators and joiners, and less likely to be individualistic, independent, and enterprizing than nonparticipants. Most of the attendees were women. Out of 99 items on changes in attitudes, information about resources, use of resources, and other criteria as reported by parents, changes on 55 were statistically significant. Increased participation in community activities and manifestations of leadership ability also resulted. The size of this study makes it worthy of notice, and the results support those studies that found that parent education can lead to changed attitudes and behaviors on the part of parents. However, in this study the effect of the parent groups on the children of the participating parents was not investigated.

The data from the previous six studies on unstructured methods of parent education indicated differing results. These differences were at least partly dependent on such factors as the subjects involved, what variables were measured for change, how the change was measured, the size of the study, the particular emphasis of the group, and whether control groups were used. Future studies should consider these variables carefully before determining the design the study is to take. Each of these studies opened new questions and areas to consider. The next group of studies utilized more structured attempts at parent education. Although they vary greatly, they all have more structure than the first group of studies in which much of the responsibility for content was placed on the participating parents.

Parent Education in a Structured Setting

Downing (1971) evaluated the results of a parent training class that met in a weekly series of evening classes lasting two and one-half hours each. The presentation procedures included: lectures, class discussions, small group problem solving, role plays, and psychodrama. The program content was a combination of Adlerian, Rogerian, and behavioral approaches.

Three groups of parents were offered the class and one group produced enough volunteers to allow for a self-selected control group that received treatment later. The evaluation consisted of parent self reports on attitudes. Attitudes which changed significantly were: attitudes toward controlling techniques, parent awareness of emotional needs of their children, parent expression of trust and respect for their children, and parent confidence in child-rearing practices. Attitudes on parent-child communication did not change significantly. In this study the position that parent attitudes can be changed through parent participation in a parent education group is supported. Downing's failure to find change in parent attitudes on parent-child communication may indicate that this variable is more resistent to change or that the technique used to measure this area was not sensitive to the changes that took place.

Wohlford and Stern (1969) had thirteen low-income mothers participate in weekly meetings led by educators. The groups were devoted to discussion and demonstration of ways that mothers could expand their children's learning skills and discussion of aspects of the mother-child relationship. These group discussions were an attempt to reduce the conflict between the home environment and the school environment by improving the emotional relations of the family and the cognitive-intellectual functioning of the family. Although all the mothers were concerned about their competency, the small extent of the program was not effective in modifying the mothers' behaviors. The failure of this study to produce significant change may indicate that a longer time span is necessary to effect change in parents, or that the mothers changed but not on the variables measured. Although difficult to measure, behavioral change in the parent and in the child is the ultimate goal for parent education.

Swenson (1970) did a study to determine whether parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices could be changed through an educational approach and, if so, whether there was a resultant change in the children's level of adjustment as rated by their parents and their adaptation to school as rated by their teachers. Two groups of parents, led by counselors, met for a three month period. One group was a lecture-discussion group stressing an individual psychological approach, the other was a film-discussion group stressing no particular orientation. Forty-one parents took part in the groups.

No significant results were reported in parental attitudes toward child-rearing practices or children's adjustment as perceived by parents and teachers. In several individual cases, however, parental attitude change and improved levels of adaptation to school and adjustment as perceived by parents were reported. Swenson concluded that future studies should include more information from parents, teachers, and children that could increase the possibility of determining changes in attitudes and behavior. Swenson's findings support the findings of Wohlford and Stern indicating that either the parent groups evaluated in these studies did not produce significant changes in the parents and in the children, or that the measuring techniques were not sensitive to the changes in these groups. More research is needed to determine specifically which variables are related to positive findings when measuring effects of parent education on the attitudes and behaviors of parents and children.

McWhirter and Cabanski (1972) evaluated a parent program that was part of a day school for the treatment of children with learning disabilities and emotional disorders. This program was based on the assumption "that the family is a primary influence in maintaining or changing a child's attitudes and behaviors about himself and his environment." There were four approaches used to reach parents: Individual Contact by school psychologists; a Parents' Aid Program that encouraged parents to visit the school; Educational Groups that met to give parents information on child development, learning theories, and the feelings connected with having a child in a school for the learning disabled and emotionally handicapped; and Counseling Groups with an open dialogue aimed at specific problems or concerns with an emphasis on emotional catharsis and the development of more effective communication patterns. Many parents participated in more than one part of the program.

Informal feedback from parents showed that they found the program helpful to understanding basic concepts of child development and ways of interacting with their children. Another important result was that the program served as a good public relations function between the school and the parents, increasing parents' understanding of the school's operation. The public relations aspect, although often overlooked, is an important function of parent education groups associated with the schools. Teachers noticed positive behavioral changes from children whose parents regularly attended the groups. The lack of objective results and the inability to assess which part or parts of the parent program yielded the most results are two weaknesses of this program.

In a study by Bank and Brooks (1971) the data indicated that parents attending a parent program in Detroit became increasingly positive in their attitude toward the school. They made more frequent visits to the school to visit their children's teachers and became more aware of and involved in all school activities. This supports the findings of McWhirter and Cabanski (1972) that parent groups often serve as a good public relations between the home and the school. The program here consisted of weekly sessions with discussions on the developmental needs of children, efficient involvement, realities of today's educational system, and the continuing process of vocational development. Another result of the program was an increased knowledge and use of community resources such as the United Community Services and the Free Legal Aid Society on the part of participating parents.

Steiner (1970) evaluated a program in which parents and their teenage children attended four weekly, two-hour sessions dealing with parent-teen relationships and communication. Steiner's approach used a lecture, followed by a discussion, and involved a weekly home assignment on communication. The method of involving the children in the program is rather unique and opens the possibility for more programs of this type.

After completing the sessions, parents stated they were better able to listen to their children and were more aware of their children's feelings. Parents from the twenty-one attending families also reported that they had learned from the ideas and problems of the other parents and were better able to handle their own problems. Three of the fifteen teenagers, however, did not find th program helpful because they felt that their parents did not learn from the sessions. On an evaluation questionnaire, asking parents and teenagers to rank the areas of learning as to their comparative benefit to them, both parents and teens rated increased knowledge about parent-teen relationships and a new understanding of how communication can be more effective over improved attitude toward parent or teenagers and improved communication with parent or teen. This is interesting because it lends support to the belief that knowledge can be gained without a change in attitudes or behavior. Possibly a longer period of time is required to integrate new knowledge into daily situations to produce changed attitudes and behaviors.

The six previous studies on parent education are interesting but difficult to compare because of differences in methods, evaluation techniques, variables studied, and a wide range of other factors influencing the results. The diverse range of findings indicates a need for more research into the area of how parent groups change parental attitudes and behaviors and whether children change as a result of parent attendance in a group.

Parent Effectiveness Training

The next group of studies involves data obtained when evaluating *Parent Effectiveness Training* (P.E.T.), Gordon, 1970. In the first three studies the *Parent Attitude Survey* (P.A.S.), Hereford, 1963, was used in the evaluation providing a common base for comparison. The P.A.S. consists of five construct scales: 1) Confidence; 2) Causation; 3) Acceptance; 4) Understanding and 5) Trust.

Garcia (1971) found that parents from two P.E.T. classes showed significant gains on three of the five P.A.S. scales: confidence, understanding, and trust. Garcia also found that wives changed more than did husbands.

Larson (1972) found that parents in P.E.T. improved significantly on the P.A.S. scales that measured confidence, causation, and trust. In Larson's study comparing three methods of parent education, the P.E.T. group profited more than either the achievement motivation group or the discussion encounter group when evaluated by the P.A.S.

Lillibridge (1972) also used the P.A.S. to measure changes in the P.E.T. group, a vounteer control group, and a random control group. He found that parents who attended P.E.T. significantly improved their attitudes in the areas of confidence, acceptance, and trust. No statisically significant gains were made in the areas of causation or understanding. The two control groups showed no statistical changes on any of the five scales.

In summary, Larson, Garcia, and Lillibridge evaluated P.E.T. programs. All reported gains on two of Hereford's P.A.S. scales: confidence and trust. However, on the other three scales diverse results were reported. Garcia found significant improvement in parental attitudes on the P.A.S. scale that measures understanding; Lillibridge reported improved scores on the acceptance scale; and Larson found that parental attitudes as measured by the causation scale improved. All three studies support the view that parental attitudes can be changed through parental participation in parent education classes, specifically, P.E.T. classes. More research in this area is necessary to determine why three studies using the same instructional methods, P.E.T., and the same measuring instrument, P.A.S., reported differing results.

In addition to measuring parental attitude change, Lillibridge measured how children viewed their parents' behavior. Children of parents who participated in P.E.T. perceived their parents to be more accepting of them as individuals, less rejecting, and more generally accepting. The variable of hostile detachment showed no significant gain or loss. The two control groups showed no significant changes on any of the four scales. Considering the results of all his measuring techniques, Lillibridge found that P.E.T. changed parents' attitudes and children's perceptions of their parents in a positive direction.

In Larson's comparison of three methods of parent education, he found that on a checklist of problem areas, the "problems with my children" category was most reduced for P.E.T. groups. "Problems of my own regarding myself" were most reduced for the achievement motivation program which focused on the individual's strengths and the discussion encounter group which focused on topics of child-rearing and the importance of emotions as they relate to the topics. When looking at change scores on a self-concept inventory, the achievement motivation group scored highest on the composite self-concept scale. The P.E.T. and discussion encounter groups also showed improvement in self-concept although less improvement than the achievement motivation group. Larson concluded from these and other comparisons among the groups that P.E.T. groups made a greater number of changes and appeared to be superior to the other methods.

Peterson (1970) also noted significant changes in attitudes of parents taking P.E.T. Parents taking the class moved in a positive direction on attitudes indicating less authoritarian control, more willingness to listen to children, more willingness to use nonpower methods in resolving family conflicts, and more acceptance of conflicts. Teenage children of these parents rated parents significantly higher after the course on acceptance, positive involvement, and acceptance of individuation. Their ratings of parents were significantly lower on hostile detachment and permissiveness. Peterson's findings, along with the results reported by Garcia, Larson, and Lillibridge; indicate that parental attitudes can be changed through participation in a P.E.T. class. Peterson's study also supports the findings of Lillibridge that children's perceptions of parents participating in P.E.T. improve.

Stearn (1970) compared parents taking P.E.T. to two control groups, one group composed of those parents who had wanted to take the course but could not and the other group composed of parents who had not wanted to take the course. The P.E.T. group became more democratic in its attitude toward the family than did either of the control groups. There was no significant change in children's perceptions of their parents' empathy, congruence, acceptance, or positive regard in either the experimental or control groups. There seemed to be no positive relationship between attitudes of the parent and perceived acceptance by the child. This finding is in contrast to the findings of Peterson and Lillibridge who found change in children's perceptions of parents taking P.E.T.

Looking at evaluations of P.E.T. programs, the results varied depending on what specific variable was looked at and how it was measured. Even studies that used the same measuring instrument, the *Parent Attitude Survey,* reported diverse findings. In general, the results of the evaluative studies indicated that P.E.T. can change parent attitudes. Some studies reported a changed perception of parents by children and others reported no change in children's perceptions of their parents. Variation in research design may have been a partial cause for some of the differing results reported. More research in this area may determine, specifically, the causes of variations in the results, and therefore, indicate more conclusively which direction parent education must take to produce specified results.

Parent Education to Improve the Cognitive Ability or School Achievement of Children

In another area of parent education, there has been an attempt to work with parents to increase the cognitive ability or school achievement of children. Five studies report results in this area of parent education. McCarthy (1968) studied attempts to change parent attitudes and improve the language and intellectual abilities of culturally disadvantaged four-year-old children. The control group attended Head Start with no parent involvement. One experimental group attended Head Start and parents participated in group meetings related to understanding their children. The other experimental group attended Head Start with parents participating in a weekly home-visit program that provided educational material for use in the home.

McCarthy found a significant difference in the language ability gain in children and in the attitudes of parents between the home-visit program and no parent involvement program. There was no significant difference in the language ability gain in children or in the attitudes of parents between the general group meeting program and the no involvement program. There was no significant difference in improvement in measures of intelligence of the child for any of the three groups.

These results indicate that low-income parents can facilitate the language development of their children and improve their own attitudes toward child-rearing through involvement in a program that taught them to use educational materials with their children. Possibly for low-income parents specific ideas and materials to use with their children are more helpful than the general ideas talked about in a group discusion which must be translated to fit into everyday situations.

In working with culturally disadvantaged mothers, Gordon (1967) found that mothers could be taught a series of perceptual, motor, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic exercises that they then introduced to their infants. The infants were tested at six months and one year on several developmental tasks. The experimental group showed greater development suggesting the value of early stimulation for the culturally disadvantaged. This study supports the assumption that parents can be taught new methods of interacting with their children which will greatly affect the development of the children. Although it was hoped that participation in this program would increase the mothers' feelings of competence and self-worth, measuring these changes proved difficult and was not successful.

Badger (1969) also did a study on an attempt to train mothers to use an infant tutorial program. Twenty mothers attended two-hour weekly sessions. The first year meetings were divided between child-centered activities (presentations of educational toys and materials) and mother-centered activities (discussions on child management and birth control). The second year program suggested that mothers use positive reinforcement, show increased interest in learning, and give children additional experience in problem solving.

The infants of the mothers made intellectual gains on the Standford-Binet and ITPA when tested over the two year program. Mothers attended regularly and became involved in paraprofessional teaching and Head Start. The teachers' observations indicated that mothers' attitudes changed positively in regard to teaching their infants. An important finding was that time seems to be crucial to attitude change since it was the second year before mothers developed the self-confidence to use at home what they learned in class. Badger's findings support the studies of McCarthy and Gordon which indicated that mothers can learn new modes of interacting with their children that will have an effect on the development of the children.

Gilmore (1969) studied how a child's school achievement is influenced by the parents' basic concern, degree of empathy, and quality of nurturance. He went on to identify patterns of communication in the home of the under-achiever that do not provide for the expression of feelings, the solution to everyday problems or the maintenance of the ego security for the child. Parents of underachievers (children from all grade levels with C-averages and I.Q. scores in the "high-average" range) in two Boston suburbs were given fifteen half-hour counseling sessions. The underachievers and their siblings improved their school achievement during the year and often continued the improvement the following year. Reports of family functioning indicated more communication, less conflict and tension, more interest in extracurricular and social activities, and a happier atmosphere. These findings support studies that indicate the importance of family communication and parenting styles on the developing child. This study also suggests that parents can learn to function more effectively and maintain better family communications which will affect the child's school achievement.

Parent Education in Behavior Modification Techniques

In addition to parent education programs focused on modifying the attitudes, behaviors, or communication of parents and the behavior, intelligence, or achievement of children, methods of teaching parents to use behavior modification techniques have been successful. Johnson and Brown (1969), Mira (1970), and Morrey (1970) all reported success in teaching parents to change the behavior of their children through behavior modification techniques. All three studies emphasized the environmental contingencies that maintained a child's behavior and helped parents learn to change these contingencies to shape the desired behavior. Johnson and Brown found that modeling, with the child, the desired parental behavior was an effective means to teach parents.

Mira found that working with parents individually was less costly than working in groups because of a significant decrease in the amount of time having to be spent with each parent on an average. Mira's evaluation of benefit of the behavior modification program to the child and family was precise and stringent. It was based on observations and recorded changes in the rate of the troublesome behavior rather than subjective reports of the manager's feelings about the behavior. To be counted as a successful case, the manager must have completed two behavior modification projects. A successful modification was defined as one in which the change in the rate of the target behavior could be expected by chance only one out of a thousand times. Of the eighty-two cases in which a manager came to the training program at least once, 46% did modify two behaviors successfully. Professionals (teachers, school social workers, or psychiatrists) were no more successful than parents in modifying children's behaviors.

Summary

In conclusion, there is substantial support that parents can learn and change their communication patterns, attitudes and behaviors. However, it has been noted that the wide variety in methods used to educate parents, the content presented, in the particular parents worked with (socioeconomic level, cultural background, etc.), the measuring instruments used to denote change, the control group (if one was used, volunteer or random), the size of the study, the type of leader, the length of time, and a host of other variables operating in the studies described most likely provided the diverse and often contradictory findings.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of parent education is new. In depth studies on specified variables are needed. Only in the P.E.T. evaluation studies was comparative data found because three researchers used scores on Hereford's P.A.S. The need for more comparative studies is clearly indicated.

This investigator has completed a study of two parent education programs in which Hereford's *Parent Attitude Survey* and a newly devised *Family Questionnaire,* developed for this research, were used to measure change in parent attitudes and communication patterns. In this pilot study, comparisons are made between two parent education programs: 1) Adlerian-Gordon and 2) Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems. These results, in turn, are compared to two no-treatment control groups.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This study is designed to generate data regarding the effectiveness of two active participant methods of parent education: 1) Adlerian-Gordon model and 2) Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems. Evaluation focused on measurement of the relationship between parent education and parent attitudes on child rearing and parent communication. The Hereford P.A.S. (Appendix A) and a Family Questionnaire (Appendix B), developed for this research, were used to test group differences.

In this section a description of the two comparative educational programs, the subjects, and the evaluation plan is presented. The hypotheses to be tested, the statistical methodology used, and the limitations of this study are also discussed.

Educational Program

Experimental group one (E_1) attended twelve weekly group meetings of two hours each or a total of 24 contact hours. They followed an Adlerian-Gordon model of parent education adopted by Koenig (1972). A counselor and a guidance technician were the leaders of the group. The following is a list of the topics covered in the twelve 2-hour sessions:

Session One: "Who Owns the Problem?"
Session Two: "Some Possible Barriers to Communication"
Session Three: "Rules and Guidelines of Active Listening"
Session Four: "More Practice with Active Listening"
Session Five: "Sending "I" Messages"
Session Six: "More Practice Sending "I" Messages"
Session Seven: "A Problem-Solving Approach"
Session Eight: "Mistaken Goals of Behavior"
Session Nine: "Encouragement vs. Praise"
Session Ten: "Withdrawing from the Situation"
Session Eleven: "Natural and Logical Consequences"
Session Twelve: "Harris and Dobson"

The format that this group followed consisted of a presentation of the topic to be covered either by one of the leaders, or in later meetings by one of the parents. Parents would then share failures or successes which they had had in this topic area or in different areas with their own family. This sharing and discussion period provided the flexibility to mold the course to the specific needs and interests of the parents. Following the sharing period, one member of the group could ask other members for help on a specific problem that could either be related or unrelated to that week's discussion topic. Fellow group members could offer suggestions drawing upon their past experiences, new learnings from the group, outside readings, or their own creative solutions. Goal setting was the final part of each lesson. Parent participants could set a goal dealing with any area they wished, ranging from behavioral goals with children to personal goals of losing weight. Role playing and worksheets were also used as methods of learning and practicing some of the skills presented. Several books were made available to parents desiring to read them. The books included *Parent Effectiveness Training* by Thomas Gordon. *I'm OK. You're OK.* by Thomas Harris, *Parent's Guide to Child Discipline* by Rudolf Dreikurs, *The Art of Loving* by Erich Frohm, and *Dare to Discipline* by James Dobson.

Experimental group two (E_2) attended seven weekly sessions of three hours each or a total of 21 contact hours. They followed the Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems model of parent education (Benson and Berger; Hollinbeck and Mease, 1971). Two elementary school counseling interns in the second year of their graduate studies were leaders for the group. They had previously attended a workshop to train leaders for using the Human Synergistics model. This investigator was one of the leaders. The following is a description of the seven 3-hour sessions (Benson, Berger, and Mease, 1973).

Session One: An Introduction to Family Communication. This session includes a general overview of what the course is intended to cover; the hopes and expectations of the parents participating; personal awareness of basic feelings; and experiential activities designed to create an awareness of behavior and communication patterns.

Session Two: Parenting Style and Facilitative Listening. Parents are acquainted with common styles of parenting and with the use of facilitative listening in appropriate situations within the family.

Session Three: DESI (describe, express, suggest, and involve). Messages: Experiences in sending negative messages which include a description of the behavior which affects the parent; an expression of how it makes him (the parent) feel; and alternative suggestions for the child's behavior. DEE (describe, express, and encourage). Messages: Experiences in sending positive messages including a description of the positive behavior; expression of how the parent feels about this behavior; and encouragement to continue such behavior.

Session Four: Family Systems Analysis and Strategies for Changing. In this crucial unit the materials focus on the family as a system which is relatively stable, but capable of making desired changes. Parents are acquainted with four communication systems which block effective communications, as well as with an "open" system which facilitates open and honest communication. The unique skill of changing the system by commenting upon the communication process is also included.

Session Five: Creative Problem Solving. Parents are guided in a step by step procedure for solving problems effectively. Application of the skills learned in previous units is emphasized in each step of the problem solving process. The creation of role-playing activities to solve hypothetical situations highlights this unit.

Session Six: Family Night. Parents bring their children to experience some of the communications activities which the parents have selected as most relevant or meaningful to them. Parents and children are encouraged to share their feelings about the activities and their possible application to their own family.

A series of short activities has been developed which emphasizes the skills previously taught, so that the parents and their children can practice them together.

Session Seven: Family Rules and Their Application. This unit exposes parents to the very important matter of family rules. They learn to identify and comment upon implicit or "hidden" rules within their families. They are then guided into applying previously learned skills in order to make these hidden rules explicit, and thus, negotiable within their own families. As the final unit, this material helps to pull together the other ideas and skills of the course, and point the "graduate" parents in a positive direction.

The format the E_2 group followed usually consisted of a short presentation of the week's topic by a leader, a brief reading and worksheet assignment in the Family Communication Systems' *Parent Handbook,* discussion applying the topic to real life situations, and role-playing activities using the new skill. At the end of each session, parents were encouraged to set specific behavioral goals for using the new skills in their own lives. At the beginning of the following week's lesson, they would be given time to share successes or failures in meeting their goals.

The emphasis in this group was for parents to learn new skills which would enable them to solve future problems in their families rather than for the leaders or other group members to help solve problems during the class time. Because of the large number of skills to be covered, discussions pertaining to a specific problem for any one parent had to be held at a minimum to ensure coverage of all the material during the seven week class. Books were made available for any parent desiring to borrow and read them. The books included *Parent Effectiveness Training* by Thomas Gordon, *I'm OK, You're OK* by Thomas Harris, *Between Parent and Child* by Haim Ginott, *Peoplemaking* by Virginia Satir and *Children: The Challenge* by Rudolf Dreikurs.

Subjects

Two experimental groups and two control groups of parents participated in this study. All participants lived within one suburban school district. Their children varied in age and particular school attended. The parents in the experimental groups were self-selected and voluntarily enrolled in the parent education classes after receiving an informational letter sent home through the school or after reading about the classes in the local newspaper

The control groups consisted of parents whose children attended the same schools as did the children of the experimental parents, however, no attempt was made to match parents according to socioeconomic criteria, number or age of children, or any other variable. The original intention was to form the control group from the same self-selected group of parents who indicated a desire to register for the class. Because all parents who wanted to join the groups were accommodated, it was not possible to form the control groups from the same self-selected group. The control groups were composed of parents who the principal, a teacher, or the counselor thought might be willing to participate in this study.

Experimental group one, (E_1), the Adlerian-Gordon model of parent education, consisted of thirteen parents. Experimental group two, (E_2), the Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems model, enrolled fifteen parents. During the course, however, three of the parents could not attend a number of the meetings because of illness, family emergencies, and previous engagements. These data were excluded from this study. The control groups each consisted of fourteen parents. C_1 was post-tested twelve weeks after pre-testing to correspond to the length of the Adlerian-Gordon model, while C_2 was post-tested seven weeks after pre-testing to correspond to the length of the Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems approach.

Table 1

Composition of the Groups

Group	N	Male	Female
E_1	13	4	9
E_2	12	5	7
C_1	14	7	7
C_2	14	7	7

Evaluation

Two instruments, the Parent Attitude Survey (P.A.S.) and a Family Questionnaire, were administered on a pre-post basis to control and experimental parents. For the experimental subjects, testing was done during the first and the last meeting of the group; while control parents were contacted and individual, evening home appointments were scheduled so that husbands and wives could both participate in the testing at a time that was convenient for them. Control parents were each paid one dollar for taking the pre-test and again for taking the post-test as a token measure of appreciation for their cooperation. Control and experimental parents were informed that the tests were a part of a study funded through the Pupil Personnel Services of the Minnesota State Department of Education and that the purpose of the study was to look at typical parents' opinions and responses to the questions and situations presented in the questionnaires.

The P.A.S. is a 75-item, five scale test that derives parents' opinions on statements concerning child rearing. The P.A.S. consists of five scales: 1) *confidence* in parental role, 2) *causation* of child's behavior, 3) *acceptance* of child's behavior and feelings, 4) mutual *understanding,* and 5) mutual *trust.* On each 15-item scale it would be possible to achieve a score ranging from +30 to —30 based on a +2, +1, 0, —1, —2 scoring model for each question corresponding to one of five responses for each item: strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, or strongly disagree. Hereford (1963) computed the split-half reliability of the five P.A.S. scales. Reliability on the Confidence scale was .78; Causation, .77; Acceptance, .68; Understanding, .86; and Trust, .84. The mean reliability for the five scales was .80.

In addition to the P.A.S., the investigator designed a Family Questionnaire (F.Q.) to measure parent communication in typical family situations. Because both educational programs attempted to influence the communication patterns within the family, a way of evaluating parent communication was needed. The investigator in collaboration with William Mease, an author for Human Synergistics Family Communication Systems, developed a thirteen item questionnaire (Appendix B) to evaluate the following dimensions: 1) facilitative listening, 2) sending negative messages, 3) sending positive messages, and 4) systems analysis skills. Both the instrument and the scoring procedures reflect the influence and bias of the specific material covered in the Family Communication Systems model.

Parents were asked to give written responses to the thirteen family situations, and these responses were awarded points for references to feelings, descriptions of specific child behavior, movement toward shared control of a situation, and other references that would tend to keep communication open, honest, and growth producing. A high total score would indicate more positive communication patterns than would a low total score.

The reliability of the F.Q. was checked on a test-retest basis with twenty parents. Twenty-one days intervened between tests.

Data from two parent responses were discarded because of apparent misunderstanding of directions. Pearson-product correlation of test-retest reliability (N=18) was .88.

The investigator scored all the questionnaires. A random sample of eight Family Questionnaires was scored by William Mease who was familiar with the scoring categories. Inter-scorer reliability was .93.

Hypotheses

The data obtained on a pre-post test basis were used to test six hypotheses regarding the improvement of parent attitudes on child rearing and family communication patterns. The hypotheses tested were that:

1. There will be a significant difference between experimental groups (E_1 and E_2) and control groups (C_1 and C_2) on each of the five P.A.S. scales: 1) Confidence, 2) Causation, 3) Acceptance, 4) Understanding, and 5) Trust.

2. There will be a significant difference between the Gordon-Adlerian group (E_1) and the Family Communication Systems group (E_2) on all five P.A.S. attitude scales.

3. There will be no significant difference between the control groups (C_1, C_2) on any of the five P.A.S. scales.

4. There will be a significant difference between the experimental groups (E_1 and E_2) and control groups (C_1 and C_2) on the Family Questionnaire.

5. There will be a significant difference between the Gordon-Adlerian group (E_1) and the Family Communication Systems group (E_2) on the Family Questionnaire.

6. There will be no significant difference between the control groups (C_1, C_2) on the Family Questionnaire.

Statistical Methodology

The University of Minnesota Statistical Program #570, multivariate analysis of variance, general linear hypothesis model, was used to analyze the data. This program generated contrasts between C_1 and C_2; E_1 and E_2; and E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2 on six variates (the five P.A.S. scales and the F.Q. total scores). The program also generated a univariate analysis for each of the six variates on the three group contrasts above.

By convention the .05 level of significance was adopted for all statistical analyses and was used as the criteria of acceptance or rejection for each hypothesis.

Limitations

Because of the pilot nature of this study, several limitations are inherent. They include:

1. The experimental groups were not randomly selected.
2. The control groups were not randomly selected.
3. The F.Q. was specifically developed for this research.
4. Scoring of the F.Q. was not done by independent raters.

The results of this study, therefore, while indicative of program effectiveness cannot be generalized at this time.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The results of the statistical analyses applied to the data are reported in this section. Specificially, those multivariate analyses of covariance and univariate analyses of covariance used in the hypothesis testing are stated and analyzed as supportive or nonsupportive of the hypotheses.

Multivariate Analysis of Convariance

A multivariate analysis of covariance was employed to test hypotheses comparing the six variate scores of C_1 and C_2; E_1 and E_2; and E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2. The statistical program corrects for any initial differences among the groups. insuring that the results represent the outcome of the intervening variable rather than initial differences between groups.

Table 2
Adjusted Means of the Various Parent Education Variables*

Group	Confidence		Causation		Acceptance		Understanding		Trust		F. Q.	
Group	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
E_1....	4.69	9.02	12.92	15.73	11.92	8.99	15.00	16.31	14.00	13.52	15.15	21.87
E_2....	3.17	6.80	12.67	15.59	9.75	10.89	13.00	18.26	11.50	14.38	13.33	26.98
C_1....	3.64	6.08	11.50	13.64	8.71	9.36	12.93	13.49	9.29	11.20	14.07	14.89
C_2....	5.29	7.94	14.00	13.96	11.50	10.46	15.71	14.65	10.43	13.27	14.79	15.76

*The adjusted mean post-scores in Table 2 are adjusted for the pre-scores of the six variates.

Table 3
Multivariate Analysis of Covariance for Six Variates

Contrast	P—Value
C_1 and C_2	.465
E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2	.001*
E_1 and E_2	.047*

*Significance beyond the .05 level.

These data (Table 3) support hypotheses No. 3 and No. 6 stating there would be no significant difference between C_1 and C_2 on the five P.A.S. scales or on the F.Q. Following standard statistical methodology, only if the multivariate analysis of covariance was significant would a univariate analysis of each variate be considered. Because no significant difference was found on the multivariate analysis of covariance comparing C_1 and C_2 on the six variates (five P.A.S. scales, plus F.Q.); no further statistical tests were performed comparing these two groups.

Statistical significance was found in the following contrasts on the six variates: E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2; E_1 and E_2 (Table 3). Univariate analyses of covariance were applied for each variate comparing these groups.

Univariate Analysis of Covariance

A univariate analysis of covariance was employed to test hypotheses comparing the scores of E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2; and E_1 and E_2 on each of the six variates. This method produces an analysis of each variate separately by contrast group.

Table 4
Adjusted Means of the Various Parent Education Variables*

Group	Confidence		Causation		Acceptance		Understanding		Trust		F. Q.	
Group	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
E_1....	4.69	9.66	12.92	16.28	11.92	9.40	15.00	17.10	14.00	13.70	15.15	21.66
E_2....	3.17	7.12	12.67	15.66	9.75	11.16	13.00	18.12	11.50	13.97	13.33	27.04
C_1....	3.64	5.86	11.50	13.39	8.71	9.19	12.93	13.21	9.29	11.17	14.07	14.65
C_2....	5.29	7.30	14.00	13.64	11.50	10.02	15.71	14.31	10.43	13.49	14.79	16.13

*The adjusted mean post-scores in Table 4 are adjusted for the pre-score of that specific variate. For example, the post score on the confidence scale was adjusted for the pre-score on that specific variate.

Table 5
Univariate Analysis of Covariance for Each Variate
(p-value given)

Variate	E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2	E_1 and E_2
Confidence..........	.030*	.031*
Causation...........	.026*	.642
Acceptance..........	.547	.293
Understanding.......	.001*	.577
Trust...............	.137	.885
F. Q................	.001*	.008*

*Significant beyond the .05 level.

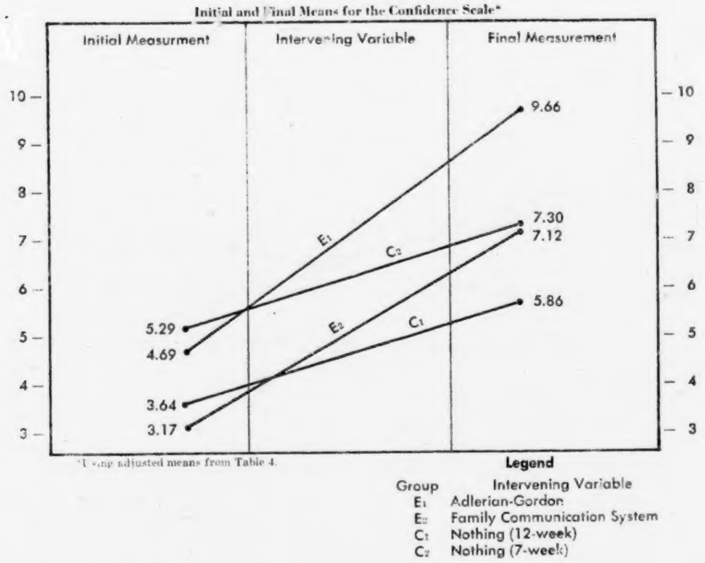
These data (Table 5) lend partial support to hypothesis No. 1 which predicted a significant difference between E_1, E_2 and C_1, C_2 on the five P.A.S. scales. The data indicate a significant difference on scales measuring: 1) confidence, 2) causation, and 3) understanding. On each of these three scales, the scores of groups participating in parent education (E_1 and E_2) improved significantly more than did the nonparticipating control groups C_1 and C_2). Scores on the scales measuring acceptance and trust did not show a significant difference between experimental and control groups.

These data (Table 5) also indicate that one significant difference occurred on the P.A.S. when comparing E_1 and E_2. E_1 (Adlerian-Gordon) improved significantly more than did E_2 (Family Communication Systems) on scores from the confidence scale. No other significant differences were found when comparing the experimental groups (E_1 and E_2) on the P.A.S. These findings support the rejection of hypothesis No. 2 which predicted a significant difference between E_1 and E_2 on all five P.A.S. attitude scales.

The data (Table 5) also support hypotheses No. 4 and No. 5. Hypothesis No. 4 predicted a significant difference in scores when comparing experimental groups to control groups on the F.Q. Data indicate that the experimental groups improved significantly more than did the control groups on scores obtained from the F.Q. Hypothesis No. 5 predicted a significant difference between E_1 and E_2 on scores from the F.Q. Data indicate the E_2 improved significantly more than E_1 on the F.Q.

Figure 1

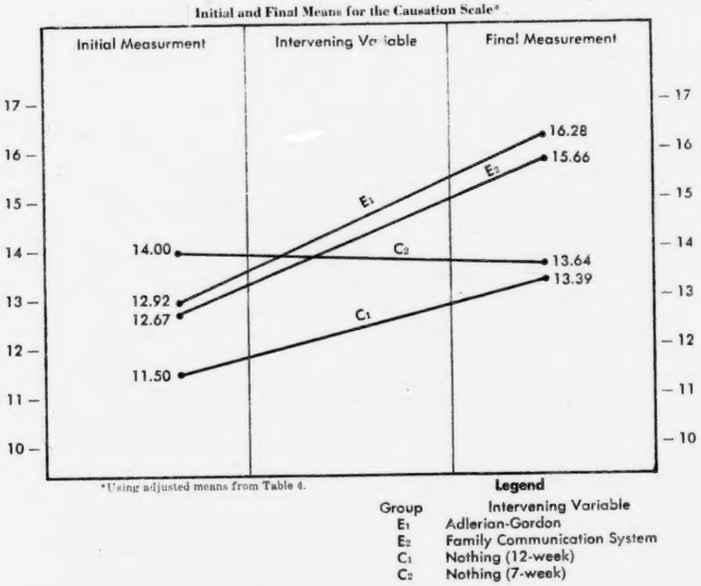
Initial and Final Means for the Confidence Scale*



*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

Figure 2

Initial and Final Means for the Causation Scale*



*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

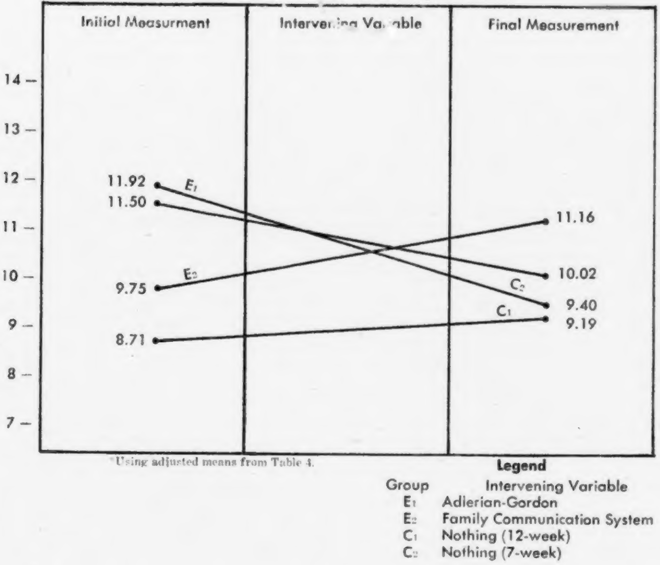


Figure 3

Initial and Final Means for the Acceptance Scale*

*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

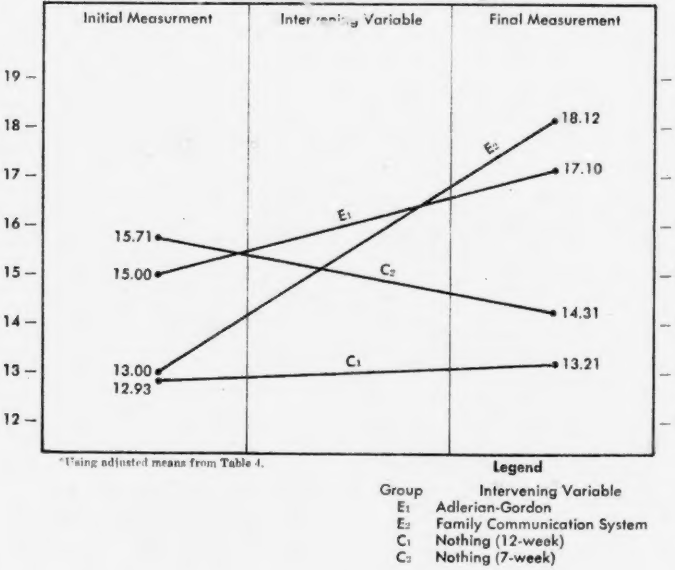


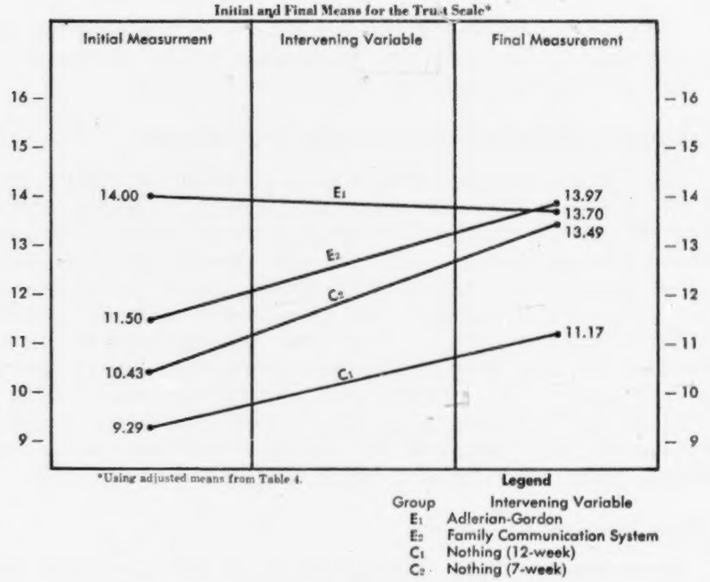
Figure 4

Initial and Final Means for the Understanding Scale*

*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

Figure 5

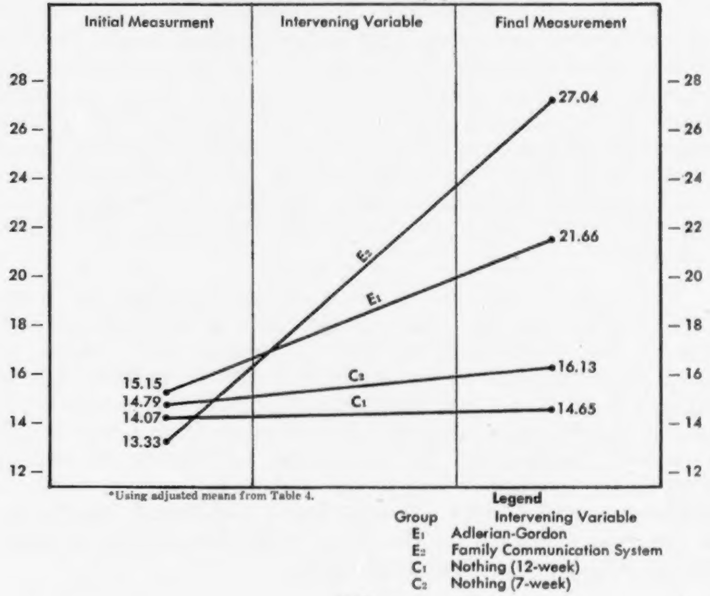
Initial and Final Means for the Trust Scale*



*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

Figure 6

Initial and Final Means on the Family Questionnaire*



*Using adjusted means from Table 4.

SUMMARY, INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Included in this section are summaries of the purposes and hypotheses of this study and discussions of the results of the study and their implications for future research.

Summary of Study Purposes and Hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of two methods of parent education through a pre-post assessment of parent attitudes on child rearing using Hereford's *Parent Attitude Survey* and a pre-post assessment of communication patterns using a *Family Questionnaire,* developed for this study. To investigate the relationship between parental attitudes and communication patterns and participation or no-participation in a parent education group, data were obtained on four groups, two experimental and two control, a total of 53 subjects. These data were used to test hypotheses regarding the relationships between the parent education groups and control groups and scores obtained on the P.A.S. and F.Q.

Interpretation of Results

Hypothesis testing. The results reported in Section four lend support to the hypothesis predicting that attendence in a parent education group would improve parental attitudes on the P.A.S. It is interesting to note that scale scores measuring confidence, causation, and understanding improved significantly more for experimental groups than for control groups. Whereas Hereford found attitudes on all five scales to improve significantly; Larson, Lillibridge, and Garcia each reported significant improvement on only three scales. Possibly the difference in methodology accounted for this disparity. Hereford used group-directed discussions. Larson, Lillibridge, Garcia, and this study employed more directive skills oriented approaches.

The findings of this study that the experimental groups improved significantly more on the scale measuring confidence support the findings of Larson, Lillibridge, and Garcia who found improvements on this scale. The data from this study also support Larson's finding that parent attitudes on causation improved significantly; and Garcia's finding that understanding improved significantly. In this study, no significant improvement on the trust scale was found. This is in contrast to Larson, Lillibridge, and Garcia, all who found significant inprovement in parental attitudes on the trust scale for parents attending Parent Effectiveness Training classes.

The data from the P.A.S. also indicate that the two different forms of parent education in this study produced significantly different scores on only the confidence scale. This investigator hypothesized that because the Adlerian-Gordon model provided more time for open group discussion and extended over a longer period of time, that parental attitudes on all P.A.S. scales would show more improvement. Only for the confidence scale was this hypothesis proven true. This indicates that parental attitudes can be changed even when the emphasis is on learning skills rather than open discussion.

The data obtained from the *Family Questionnaire* supported the hypothesis that participation in either parent education group would produce significantly improved communication patterns when compared to control groups. This indicated that parents can learn to respond in new ways to family situations. Also supported was the hypothesis predicting significant differences between the two experimental groups. As was predicted, the Family Communication Systems group improved significantly more than did the Adlerian-Gordon group. This was hypothesized because the emphasis of Family Communication Systems was a parental awareness and improvement in communication styles. Also the F.Q. was designed to measure, specifically, several of the topics presented in Family Communication Systems.

Instrument analysis. When answering the P.A.S., many parents commented that the statements were too vague or global. Many stated that information, such as the child's age, would be necessary before they could either agree or disagree with the statement. The vague, general nature of statements on the P.A.S. apparently leaves too much for parental interpretation. A question may be raised as to the validity of the P.A.S. in measuring parent's attitudes toward child rearing in their specific situation or whether the P.A.S. merely measures parents' idealized conceptions of what child rearing attitudes should be.

The P.A.S. measured attitudes, therefore, the question of whether parental behavior and child behavior changed as the result of attitudinal change is left unanswered. Because no long term post-testing was a part of this study, it is also impossible to know if the attitude change was only short term or lasted long after the groups stopped meeting. Possibly even more positive change occurred in the months following the last group meeting as parents had a chance to assimilate and integrate new learning from the group sessions. Future research should incorporate this factor in the design of the study.

When answering the F.Q., many parents were bothered by items that required a response more appropriate for the opposite sex parent. Possibly having different questionnaire forms for mothers and fathers would solve this problem and provide more valid results. Also, when comparing two methods of parent education, an attempt to form a questionnaire that could measure skills important to both groups would provide a better means of comparison. Although several of the items on the F.Q. did measure communication skills presented in both groups, some of the skills were only presented in Family Communication Systems. The investigator feels that Section III of the F.Q. is particiularly weak in its ability to measure improved parental communication and difficult to score and would recommend revising this section in future use.

As with the P.A.S., the question of whether improved scores on the F.Q. indicated improved communication in the daily lives of the parents is not answered. Also interesting is the possibility of long term post-testing to see if the results are temporary or lasting.

Implications of Results

The literature reviewed in section two and the results of this research presented in section three and four have provided support for the value of parent education. The concept of working with parents to affect children and family functioning appears to have important implications for counselors, teachers, and administrators.

Because of limitations on their time; counselors, teachers, and administrators may consider interventions working directly with parents to be an effective method of improving child behavior and achievement in the school. Working with parent groups also appears to be an effective means of improving parent attitudes on child rearing and the quality of family functioning as indicated by communication patterns within the family.

Another important implication of parent education groups associated with the school is the good public relations service they provide bringing the parents into the school under a nonthreatening situation. Although this public relations side of parent education was not evaluated in this study, several investigators (Bank and Brooks, 1971, and McWhirter and Cabanski, 1972) have noted this important concurrent effect in their studies. In the present study, leaders of both experimental groups concluded that participants found the group experience pleasurable and growth producing. This was indicated by unsolicited parent comments and the desire on the part of participating parents to keep discussions going even after the official class ending time. The low rate of absenteeism on the part of parents also supports the subjective evaluations made by the leaders.

The results of this study also indicate the need for future research. The several conflicting results obtained on the Hereford P.A.S. by different investigators could possibly be explained by further research using this instrument. The need for new instruments to measure correlations between participation in parent education groups and parent and child behavior is also obvious. Objective forms of evaluation are needed to assess skills learned in groups and also the degree to which these new skills are used in daily family life.

In summary, more research is needed to evaluate the effectiveness of parent education groups. The relationships between various methods of parent education and the specific changes they produce in parent and child behavior need to be further clarified. Questions concerning which type of parent education is best suited to a specific group of parents to produce specific goals still need to be answered. It remains for future research to accomplish these refinements in the process and evaluation of parent education groups.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

NAME__________________________ SCHOOL__________________________

PARENT-ATTITUDE SURVEY*

Instructions

On the following pages are a number of statements regarding parents and children. Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each statement in the following manner:

Strongly Agree	SA
Agree	A
Undecided	U
Disagree	D
Strongly Disagree	SD

For example: if you strongly agree with the following statement, you would mark it in this way:

Boys are more active than girls. [✓ SA] A U D SD

This survey is concerned only with the attitudes and opinions that parents have; there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Work just as rapidly as you can — it is your first impression that we are interested in. There is no time limit.

1. Parents have to sacrifice everything for their children. SA A U D SD
2. Parents should help children feel they belong and are needed. SA A U D SD
3. Taking care of a small baby is something that no woman should be expected to do all by herself. SA A U D SD
4. When you come right down to it, a child is either good or bad and there's not much you can do about it. SA A U D SD
5. The earlier a child is weaned from its emotional ties to its parents the better it will handle its own problems. SA A U D SD
6. Most of the time giving advice to children is a waste of time because they either don't take it or don't need it. SA A U D SD
7. It is hard to let children go and visit people because they might misbehave when parents aren't around. SA A U D SD
8. Fewer people are doing a good job of child-rearing now than 30 years ago. SA A U D SD

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*Permission to use granted to Dr. G. Dean Miller, Minnesota Department of Education, by the author, Dr. C. F. Hereford.

9. With all a child hears at school and from friends, there's little a parent can do to influence him. SA A U D SD

10. If a little girl is a tomboy, her mother should try to get her interested in dolls and playing house. SA A U D SD

11. A child has a right to his own point of view and ought to be allowed to express it, just as parents express theirs. SA A U D SD

12. If children are quiet for a while you should immediately find out why. SA A U D SD

13. It's a rare parent who can be even-tempered with the children all day. SA A U D SD

14. Psychologists now know that what a child is born with determines the kind of person he becomes. SA A U D SD

15. One reason that it is sad to see children grow up is because they need you more when they are babies. SA A U D SD

16. The trouble with trying to understand children's problems is they usually just make up a lot of stories to keep you interested. SA A U D SD

17. A mother has a right to know everything going on in her child's life because her child is a part of her. SA A U D SD

18. Most parents aren't sure what is the best way to bring up children. SA A U D SD

19. A child may learn to be a juvenile delinquent from playing games like cops and robbers and war too much. SA A U D SD

20. There is no reason why a child should not learn to keep his clothes clean very early in life. SA A U D SD

21. If a parent sees that a child is right and the parent is wrong, the parent should admit it and try to do something about it. SA A U D SD

22. A child should be allowed to try out what he can do at times without the parents watching. SA A U D SD

23. It's hard to know what to do when a child is afraid of something that won't hurt him. SA A U D SD

24. Most all children are just the same at birth; it's what happens to them afterwards that is important. SA A U D SD

25. Playing with a baby too much should be avoided since it excites them and they won't sleep. SA A U D SD

26. Children shouldn't be asked to do all the compromising without a chance to express their side of things. SA A U D SD

27. Parents should make it their business to know everything their children are thinking. SA A U D SD

28. Raising children isn't as hard as most parents let on. SA A U D SD

29. There are many things that influence a young child that parents don't understand and can't do anything about. SA A U D SD

30. A child who wants too much affection may become a "softie" if it is given to him. SA A U D SD

31. Family life would be happier if parents make children feel they were free to say what they think about anything. SA A U D SD

32. Children must be told exactly what to do and how to do it or they will make mistakes. SA A U D SD

33. Parents sacrifice most of their fun for their children. SA A U D SD

34. Many times parents are punished for their own sins through the bad behavior of their children. SA A U D SD

35. If you put too many restrictions on a child, you will stunt his personality. SA A U D SD

36. Most children's fears are so unreasonable it only makes things worse to let the child talk about them. SA A U D SD

37. It is hard to know when to let boys and girls play together when they can't be seen. SA A U D SD

38. I feel I am faced with more problems than most parents. SA A U D SD

39. Most of the bad traits children have (like nervousness or bad temper) are inherited. SA A U D SD

40. A child who misbehaves should be made to feel guilty and ashamed of himself. SA A U D SD

41. Family conferences which includes the children don't usually accomplish much. SA A U D SD

42. It's a parent's duty to make sure he knows a child's innermost thoughts. SA A U D SD

43. It's hard to know whether to be playful rather than dignified with children. SA A U D SD

44. A child who comes from bad stock doesn't have much chance of amounting to anything. SA A U D SD

45. A child should be weaned away from the bottle or breast as soon as possible. SA A U D SD

46. There's a lot of truth in the saying, "Children should be seen and not heard." SA A U D SD

47. If rules are not closely enforced, children will misbehave and get into trouble. SA A U D SD

48. Children don't realize that it mainly takes suffering to be a good parent. SA A U D SD

49. Some children are so naturally headstrong that a parent can't really do much about them. SA A U D SD

50. One thing I cannot stand is a child's constantly wanting to be held. SA A U D SD

51. A child's ideas should be seriously considered in making family decisions. SA A U D SD

52. More parents should make it their job to know everything their child is doing. SA A U D SD

53. Few parents have to face the problems I find with my children. SA A U D SD

54. Why children behave the way they do is too much for anyone to figure out. SA A U D SD

55. When a boy is cowardly, he should be forced to try things he is afraid of. SA A U D SD

56. If you let children talk about their troubles, they end up complaining even more. SA A U D SD

57. An alert parent should try to learn all his child's thoughts. SA A U D SD

58. It's hard to know when to make a rule and stick by it. SA A U D SD

59. Not even psychologists understand exactly why children act the way they do. SA A U D SD

60. Children should be toilet-trained at the earliest possible time. SA A U D SD

61. A child should always accept the decision of his parents. SA A U D SD

62. Children have a right to activities which do not include their parents. SA A U D SD

63. A parent has to suffer much and say little. SA A U D SD

64. If a child is born bad there's not much you can do about it. SA A U D SD

65. There's no acceptable excuse for a child hitting another child. SA A U D SD

66. Children should have a share in making family decisions just as the grown-ups do. SA A U D SD

67. Children who are not watched will get in trouble. SA A U D SD

68. It's hard to know what healthy sex ideas are. SA A U D SD

69. A child is destined to be a certain kind of person no matter what the parents do. SA A U D SD

70. It's a parent's right to refuse to put up with a child's annoyances. SA A U D SD

71. Talking with a child about his fears most often makes the fear look more important than it is. SA A U D SD

72. Children have no right to keep anything from their parents. SA A U D SD

73. Raising children is a nerve-wracking job. SA A U D SD

74. Some children are just naturally bad. SA A U D SD

75. A child should be taught to avoid fighting no matter what happens. SA A U D SD

76. Children don't try to understand their parents. SA A U D SD

77. A child should never keep a secret from his his parents. SA A U D SD

Appendix B

FAMILY QUESTIONNAIRE*

Name ______________________________School ____________________

Below are some typical family situations with incomplete conversations. Read over each conversation and write down how you as a parent might respond if you were in the situation.

1. Give a response that you might offer if your child said these statements.

Child: A. "Just because Carrie is older, she gets to do whatever she wants."

Parent: ______________________________

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Child: B. "I wish we could have some pets. Everyone else does."

Parent: ______________________________

____

____

Child: C. "What a boring summer! All the older kids got to go on fun vacations and all we did was stay home."

Parent: ______________________________

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Child: D. "We never do anything fun in school. All we do is work, work, work!"

Parent: ______________________________

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Child: E. "I was elected as the student council representative from my room today."

Parent: ______________________________

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*Parent Education Research Project, Pupil Personnel Services, Minnesota Department of Education, Capitol Square Building, St. Paul, Minnesota.

2. Write what you might say to your child in the following situations. Please limit your response to no more than three sentences.

   A. Your nine-year-old daughter invited a friend for an after-school snack. After her friend leaves you notice your daughter left the milk, cake, and dirty dishes on the table.

   Parent: ____

   ____

   ____

   B. Since you talked with your five-year-old son, you notice he has been picking up his toys after playing with them.

   Parent: ____

   ____

   ____

   C. You are talking with a friend on the telephone, and your seven-year-old son keeps interrupting you to ask questions.

   Parent: ____

   ____

   ____

   D. Your thirteen -year-old-son arrives home promptly for dinner after you have discussed with him how his usual late arrivals affect you and the rest of the family.

   Parent: ____

   ____

   ____

   E. Your ten-year-old daughter has not fed her dog, a responsibility that she agreed to when she wanted a pet.

   Parent: ____

   ____

   ____

3. Here are some examples of conversations within families. You are asked to read the part explaining the situation, and to fill in the last response using three or fewer sentences.

   A. Situation: The father hears his eleven-year-old son, Mike, doing something in the basement and goes down to investigate.

   Father: "What are you doing with those tools? Last time you tried to build something, we ended up throwing the whole thing out and you broke an expensive tool."

Son: "I really want to build Mom a birdfeeder for her birthday."

Father: ____

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B. **Situation:** A thirteen-year-old daughter is unhappy with her room and she approaches her mother with the problem.

Daughter: "Mom, what can I do to make my room look nicer? You always have great ideas, and everything I try always turns out ugly."

Mother: ____

____

____

____

C. **Situations:** The wife is feeling frustrated because her husband lately never seems to spend any time with her or the family.

Husband: "Honey, don't plan on me for dinner. It looks like I'll be tied up at the office this evening."

Wife: "Great! Another evening of sitting at home alone with the kids. I can remember when we used to do fun things together. Now, I doubt if the children remember what you look like."

Husband: ____

____

____

____

Appendix C

METHODS AND EXAMPLES FOR SCORING FAMILY QUESTIONNAIRES

PART I: Facilitative Listening and Open Communication.

For each of the five situations, parents were awarded points on the following basis:

- One point for directly stated openness to present or future change.
- One point for a positive response to the content of the child's statement.
- Two points for a response that acknowledged the feelings of the parent or the child.
- No points were given for cynicism, preaching, disqualification of feelings, or other forms of closed communications.

Scores ranged from 0 to 5 points for each of the five items in Part I.

Below are some responses taken from parents' forms with the total number of points awarded indicated in parentheses.

A. No! She can do things better because she is older. As soon as you can do things we'll let you do them also. (One point for openness to future change.

D. Wait until you get older, you'll find out what work is. (Zero points for disqualification of the child's feeling.)

E. Wow! That's great, I'll bet you're really proud. (Three points—one point for the positive comment on content and two points for acknowledging the child's feeling.)

PART II: Sending Messages of Positive and Negative Feelings.

For each of the two situations requiring a positive message from the parent (items B and D), one point was awarded for each of the following:

- Describing the exact behavior specifically.
- Expressing how the parent feels about this behavior.
- Encouraging this behavior to continue.

For each positive situation, a parent could score from 0 to 3 points.

Below are two parent responses to situation B with the number of points awarded indicated in the parentheses.

B. Thank you for picking up your toys so nicely. That really makes me happy. (Three points—one point for describing the behavior specifically, one point for expressing the parent's feeling, and one point for encouraging the child by thanking him.)

B. Scott, now that you are picking up your own toys, you can stay up later. (One point for describing the specific behavior. Note: no points were given for rewarding the child.)

For each of the three situations requiring a negative message from the parent (items A, C, and E) one point was awarded for each of the following:

- Describing the behavior specifically.
- Expressing how the parent feels about this behavior.
- Suggesting what should be done or involving the child in the decision as to what should be done.

For each negative situation, a parent could score from 0 to 3 points.

Below are some responses to the situations requiring negative messages with the number of points awarded indicated in the parentheses.

A. If you are going to have snacks for your friends, you must clean up afterwards. (One point for suggesting what must be done.)

A. It really upsets me to see the table all messed up like this when I need to use it. Would you please clean up after yourself. (Three points—one for describing the behavior, one for expressing the parent's feeling, and one for suggesting that she clean up after herself.)

E. You know that if you are going to have a pet you must take care of it. What can we do to correct this situation? (One point for involving the child in the decision as to what should be done. Note: no points were given for a description of the behavior because it was not specific enough to merit a point.)

PART III: Identifying and Changing Family Systems.

Three examples of family conversations representing relationship systems are given. Parents' responses received points for showing sensitivity to the relationship system and changing the system to insure that all members count and are important. Points were awarded for the following:

- Two points for a response that moved toward shared control of the situation.
- Two points for a response that acknowledged feelings about the relationship.
- One point for a response that acknowledged feelings within the responder or the other person in the situation.

Scores ranged from 0 to 5 points for each of the three items.

Below are some parent responses to the three examples with the number of points awarded indicated in parentheses.

A. I'd be glad to help you, so you can learn how to use and care for these kinds of tools. (Three points—two for shared control and one for acknowledging the feeling.)

B. Next time we go shopping, let's look at some paint and wallpaper and a few other things. We'll look at some ideas on what we can do. (Two points for shared control of the situation.)

C. Let's not talk like that! You know that my job requires these inconveniences at times. (Zero points.)

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FACILITATING POSITIVE PARENT ATTITUDES THROUGH A COUNSELOR LED COURSE

Dennis Haversack and Michael Berger*

Introduction

The ever present unresolved questions of parent-child relations, marital relations, and even broader human relations as found in our everyday mass media (women's magazines, radio and T.V. programing) finds the general population searching for methods, gimmicks or ideas on how to more effectively relate to their children, spouses, boyfriends, girlfriends, or larger groups of people. Generally, the field of "human relations" has grown to be a major, highly competitive business within the last decade. Significant numbers of our population seemingly are willing and seeking actively, knowledge which they hope will improve their relationship with others.

To substantiate these hopes and wishes one needs only to observe any gathering of adults. Whether the gathering is a social function or some other type of meeting, an almost universal topic at some time during the occasion is children and/or child rearing including parent-child relationships. We hear about stages of development or problems such as the "Terrible twos," or the ideas of people like Dr. Benjamin Spock or Dr. Hiam Gianott. The interest and the quest are clearly evident. Mass media presentations about parent-child relations are often singular topics for articles or interviews. Sometimes these lead parents to investigate the topic further by reading a book or taking a course to add to their bank of factual knowledge. Through observation, what often happens is that parents become pseudo-sophisticated in their approach to improve parent-child relations. They learn the language, know the basic theories, but the process of interacting often remains essentially the same. Their search for and dream of becoming better functioning in their relationship goes on.

The ability to transmit that knowledge is short of the necessary goal in parent-child relationships. If parents are to realize their dream, there must be an attitudinal and behavioral change as well. Hereford (1963) states that the main educational problem in parent-child relations is not one of giving information or imparting knowledge. The main problem lies in those parental difficulties which stem not from ignorance but from attitudes, feelings and emotions (p. 4).

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*Mr. Haversack and Mr. Berger are elementary school counselors with Independent School District No. 274, Hopkins, Minnesota. The study reported herein was sponsored by ESEA, Title III, funds through Pupil Personnel Services Section, Minnesota Department of Education.

The purpose of the Hopkins study was to improve parent attitudes toward their children through the use of both didactic and experiential teaching methods.

Specific objectives were:

- To provide parents with alternative functional processes for communicating their values, needs, and expectations to their children.
- To show a change in parent attitude toward their children through the teaching of communication.

The remainder of this paper will deal with a brief review of related literature, the process the parents experienced, description of the experimental design, and summary of the findings along with some concluding comments.

Related Literature

In order to describe the results of the related research on the parent training program it is important to provide some clarity as to what is meant by the family as a system, the interaction process within the family systems and family pathology. Friedman and Pollack (1969, p. 3) describe the family and pathology as "an organization of a limited number of human beings, differing from one another by age and sex who because of their differences are related in complimentarity and can satisfy one another in needs in health and disease; where the complimentarity exists between needs arrested in development we have family pathology." Handel (1967, p. 10) describes the evolving developmental process that families experience as "an endless process of movement in and around consensual understanding, from attachment to conflict, to withdrawal and over again. Separateness and connectedness are underlying conditions of a family's life and its common task is to give form to both."

The major process as perceived by Handel (1967) is the effort to achieve a satisfactory pattern of separateness and connectedness. Each family shapes these its own way with family members deciding on interactional patterns. Family members must be individuals as well as part of the total family. The second process is the congruence of family images. We must take into account all members if we are to understand a family's life. An image of a person is one's definition of him as an object and the images held by individuals go into the understanding of a family's life. A person's image of his family embodies what he expects from it, what he gives to it, and what kind of importance it has for him. If the family system is to have continuity the images must tend toward compatibility, i.e., stability or predictability of preferred behavior. The main issue appears to be, are the deficiencies and similarities among the family members mutually acceptable? Judgments and feelings are responsive first to the inward images of self and family. They then become responsive to and for others so that family life is shaped within the participants as well as between them. The third major process is the family theme which is a pattern of feelings, motives, fantasies and conventionalized understandings.

Grouped about some focus of concern that has a particular form in the personality of the individual members, the pattern emphasizes a fundamental view of reality and some ways of dealing with it. Handel's criteria for separating and understanding family themes is presented as follows:

1) The effect on behavior in family areas or activities, e.g., communication, consideration, and independence.

2) Expressing basic forms to the external world and of interpersonal involvement.

3) The theme arises and has consequences for the personality of all members.

4) Established boundaries for the family's world of experience.

A. The differentiation of individual personality.

B. The intensity of experience.

C. The extensity of experience.

D. The tendency to evaluate experience.

Some characteristics of strong families were identified by Otto (1963). In his work, Otto found the strong family to be an ambiguous term; not much is know about strong families while a vast body of knowledge has been accumulated concerning deviant families. However, in his family clinic, Otto identified the following as characteristics of strong families:

1) The ability to provide for the physical, emotional and spiritual needs of a family.

2) The ability to be sensitive to the needs of family members.

3) The ability to communicate effectively.

4) The ability to provide support and encouragement.

5) The ability to initiate and maintain growth producing relationships and experiences within and without the family.

6) The capacity to maintain and create constructive and responsible community relationships in the neighborhood, the school, the town and the local and state government.

7) The ability to grow with and through children.

8) An ability for self-help and, when appropriate, the ability to accept help.

9) An ability to perform family roles flexibly.

10) Mutual respect for the individual family members.

11) The ability to use a crisis or seemingly injurious experience as a means of growth.

12) A concern for family unity, loyalty and interfamily cooperation.

The nuclear development of the family begins with the marital dyad. Friedman and Pollack (1969) state the marital relationship is the dominant factor in determining the feeling and behavior of all people in the home. In the usual two generation family when the relationship between the husband and wife is that of a warm comfortable ebb and flow with basic honesty and firm commitment between them we would expect the children to be essentially honest and sincere people. Jackson (1966) states marriage is the only well-known long-term collaberative relationship. He considers nonsexual aspects in an analysis of marriage. These aspects are: a voluntary relationship, a permanent relationship, an exclusive relationship in the western world, and a goal oriented relationship.

The sociologist Shibutanna (1965) says many things men do take a certain form not so much from instincts, but from necessity adjusting to their fellows. What characterizes the interactonal approach is the contention that human nature and the social order are products of communications. The direction taken by a person's conduct is seen as something that is constructed in the reciprocal give and take of interdependent men who are adjusting to one another. Since the family is the most influential learning context, surely a more detailed study of family process would yield valuable clues to the etiology of such typical modes of interaction.

Haley (1963) states the crucial differences between families would seem to reside in the sort of transaction that takes place between family members. He found we need a descriptive system for families to answer questions of the useful type. Does the delinquent come from a particular type of family, the alcoholic, the schizophrenic or the psychopath?

Jackson (1966) found there are certain limitations and problems in studying families when searching for one to one relationships between an identifiable family process and a characteristic individual response. The following must be kept in mind according to Jackson:

1) That the same behavior in two people can spring from quite different interactional causes.

2) Behavior is multi-determined; a child is exposed to a vast number of learning contents all of which help to mold behavior.

3) Stress resulting from outside pressures on the family can produce family processes which are destructive to a child's development.

4) Certain variables might be present to soften the effect of a destructive family process, e.g., a child might form a protective relationship with a teacher.

Most important of all is to remain alert to the fundamental precariousness of using a symptom as a starting point to investigate family interaction. The major assertion presented here is that the family is a rule governed system: family members behave among themselves in an organized repetitive manner and this patterning of behavior can be abstracted as a governing principle of family life.

Bateson, as cited by Jackson, (1951) provides theoretical background pertaining to the nature of communication. Bateson states communication has two distinct aspects or functions; they are report and command. The report portion deals with the content of the message. The command portion signals how the information is to be received. Every message has both report and command aspects.

It is the relationship level of communication which is of concern in this portion of the paper. Family members agree on relationship rates, although there is no need to assume that this always takes place on a conscious level. In fact, most relationship rules are out of awareness of those involved in the relationship. Jackson (1966) states that "family units each in turn respond with their definition of the relationship which may affirm, deny or modify the relationship." Family units, according to Jackson, have stabilized the process which determines the nature of the relationships. "Agreeing" on mutually acceptable definitions or at least the limits for disputes reveals other parameters of family communication systems. Families interact sequentially in all areas of family life, therefore, family systems can be run by a relatively small set of rules which govern the relationships. In the family rules system, there exists a homeostatic mechanism which keeps behavior in a narrower set of rules for the maintenance of that system. The course for parents was developed in part out of such an explicitly oriented communication family system.

Method

The development of the parent education program came from two sources; the stated need by experts in the field and the expressed need by parents in the Hopkins School District. These two groups strongly recommend basic communication skills to help individuals in the area of parenting. It is not a crisis-centered, therapeutic approach nor a situational-answer-method of assistance. The program focused on skills and concepts that parents can use to facilitate positive developmental growth in their family. In response to these needs a detailed seven lesson course for the parents to participate in was developed. The primary mode of teaching the material was through experimental learning in conjunction with a moderate amount of didactic presentations.

The following is a brief description of the seven 3-hour sessions the parents participated in.

Session One: Parents received an overview of the program and participated in a communication exercise which deals with both positive and negative patterns of communication. *Session Two:* Parents were assisted in recognizing their particular relationship system and a technique for facilitating their child's conversations was provided.

Session Three: Parents experienced how to send clear positive and negative messages to their children.

Session Four: Parents experienced five typical family systems and ways to change the different systems were described. *Session Five:* Parents were presented a step-by-step process for problem solving in their own family.

Session Six: This session had several options, but all of them required that the parents bring their children with them to the session. Families went through a series of exercises which provided the parents with an opportunity to apply their skills and to make some sense out of their family system.

Session Seven: Focus was upon awareness of families being rule governed and to look at implicit and explicit rules in their own family. The skills taught in the previous unit to break and/or change the inappropriate rules that exist in the family were used.

Subjects: Ninety parents of first graders from the Harley Hopkins population were contacted to participate in the study via letters which described the course and its purpose. As a result of this request fifty-five parents stated they would be willing to participate in the study. These fifty-five consisted of two parents for the same family with the exception of one single parent. From this population, parents were randomly selected for control and experimental groups. Twenty parents were selected for the experimental group and twenty were selected for the control group. Both the experimental and control groups could be associated with the middle class of McCall's index of status. No discrimination was made on the basis of I.Q. of children, number of siblings, and age of parents. The evaluation tool used with the parents of the experimental and control groups was the Hereford Parent Attitude Survey (1963).

The 75 items listed on the survey are assigned to one of five scales: confidence, causation, acceptance, understanding and trust.

Parents of both the experimental and control groups took the survey twice, with a ten-week period of time between the pre and post testing. The reliability of the five attitude scales on the Hereford survey were computed by means of the split-half method. Confidence split-half reliability is .78; Causation .77; Acceptance .68; Understanding .86; and Trust .84. Mean total reliability of the five scales is .80. Hereford (1963, p. 57) reports that the correlation coefficients were high enough to indicate that all the scales were measuring related parent attitude, but not high enough to suggest duplication.

Both parents of the experimental and control groups met at the school for the purpose of taking the pre-test, and to receive a further explanation of the study. After the ten-week period the post test forms were mailed to the parents of the experimental and control groups. The parents were asked to respond to the survey without consulting their spouse and to then mail the forms to the school. The parents of the experimental groups answered an additional questionnaire at the end of the last session for the purpose of evaluating the course (Appendix A).

The experimental group met once weekly in the evening for three hours for seven consecutive weeks. The sessions were conducted at the Harley Elementary School in Hopkins and led by counselor Robert Hollinbeck. The typical format followed at these meetings included a conceptual presentation of the material chosen for that evening, simulated activities related to the conceptual presentation, and goal setting.

The focus of the course was on the process of communication and support for the use of the process by the parents in their particular families. Parents were not led to believe that this course on skill development was a panacea in their particular families, but rather these were alternative skills they could apply in their own situation in a developmental way.

The following five tables show the breakdown of the data gained from the Hereford Parent Attitude Survey. The five tables are representative of the areas covered in the survey: confidence, causation, acceptance, understanding, and trust. The tables show a comparison of experimental and control, pre and post mean scores, standard deviations, post t scores, n's — and degrees of freedom (n-1). The test statistic used was a t test matched pair formula where $t = \frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2} - \frac{2r \times S_1 + S_2}{N}$[1]

A critical point of 2.11 for a two-tailed test was used to determine statistical significance. The null hypotheses were: (1) there is no significant difference between the means of the pre and post experimental group; (2) there is no significant difference between the means of the pre and post control group. These two hypotheses were examined for each of the five scales listed above. These data are reported on tables one through five.

Table 1
Parents Confidence Scale

	Group	Mean	S.D.	N	df	t
Pre-test	Experimental	57.89	6.05	18	17	
	Control	58.89	4.27	18	17	
Post-test	Experimental	61.47	5.40	18	17	3.17**
	Control	57.72	6.18	18	17	.70

**Significant at .01 level.

Table 2
Parents Causation Scale

	Group	Mean	S.D.	N	df	t
Pre-test	Experimental	64.99	6.57	18	17	
	Control	65.83	4.63	18	17	
Post-test	Experimental	69.47	5.08	18	17	4.98***
	Control	65.33	4.55	18	17	.35

***Significant at .001 level.

[1] Hays, p. 335.

Table 3
Parents Acceptance Scale

	Group	Mean	S.D.	N	df	t
Pre-test	Experimental	61.11	5.37	18	17	
	Control	65.00	5.09	18	17	
Post-test	Experimental	65.53	6.30	18	17	3.39**
	Control	63.94	3.92	18	17	.86

**Significant at .01 level.

Table 4
Parents Understanding Scale

	Group	Mean	S.D.	N	df	t
Pre-test	Experimental	63.72	3.99	18	17	
	Control	61.17	7.16	18	17	
Post-test	Experimental	66.60	6.21	18	17	3.26**
	Control	62.67	4.68	18	17	.77

**Significant at .01 level.

Table 5
Parents Trust Scale

	Group	Mean	S.D.	N	df	t
Pre-test	Experimental	60.94	6.56	18	17	
	Control	60.11	7.90	18	17	
Post-test	Experimental	64.20	8.20	18	17	2.57*
	Control	61.78	8.57	18	17	.95

*Significant at .05 level.

The results of the experimental study support the theoretical position on the important components of parenting. The experimental group showed significant gains on all five scales whereas the control group showed no significant gains. These components came from a subcommittee of the research council and were based on a triple prerequisite of the area being important to parent-child relationship, measurable and receptive to influence by educational methods. The areas concerning parental attitudes: confidence in parental role, referring to the parent's concept of himself ranging from inadequate feelings to adequate in meeting the demands of parenthood; causations of the child's behavior is the next parent factor considered. This scale is concerned with how a parent sees himself as a causative factor relating to his child's behavior. At one end of the continuum is a parent who believes his child's behavior is inherited, at the other end is a parent who feels his child's behavior is determined by parent-child interaction, by environmental factors, and by parental behavior and attitudes. The third scale is acceptance of the child's behavior and feelings. This scale measures the degree to which a parent is satisfied with his child's behavior. He or she sees the child as an individual at one end of the continuum as a rejected object. At the opposite end is the extremely permissive parent. Mutual understanding is the fourth parent scale. This scale, based on communication with the variable at the lower end of this continuum, indicates the parent who does not share ideas, attitudes or feelings with his child; at the upper end is the parent who believes in the reciprocal exchange of both the intellectual and emotional aspects of living. Mutual trust is the fifth scale. This scale measures the amount of confidence that parents and children have in each other. At the lower end of this continuum is a parent-child relationship marked by suspicion and deceit; at the other end is a relationship characterized by mutual confidence or trust.

It is interesting to note that on all five of the scales described, the experimental group showed a statistically significant change equal to or greater than the .05 and .01 levels of confidence. The control group showed no evidence of anything but random change as indicated by the fluctuation in their t scores. These data support our hypotheses that an educational training program in parent-child communication does have a significant influence on parent attitude in the five critical areas described above. Some additional descriptive type data supporting the communication course for parents may be found in Appendix A.

We caution the reader in generalizing the results from this population to their particular population because of possible differences in socio-economic, educational factors and age of the parents. We suggest the following areas for future investigation: long-term follow-up of lasting change in parents; the effectiveness with different parent populations; (socio-economic, education, age, etc.) the impact of the educational program on the children at home and in school.

To facilitate offering a communication experience for parents on a systematic basis an organized course has been developed and field tested (Berger and Benson, 1971 and Mease and Hollenbeck, 1971). Regional workshops for counselors around the state are planned by the Pupil Personnel Services Section, Minnesota Department of Education, to assist them in getting similar parent groups started.

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APPENDIX A

Name (optional)________________________________

Dates you took course____________________________

Instructor's name_______________________________

FAMILY COMMUNICATIONS COURSE EVALUATION

Instructions: On the following pages are a number of statements regarding The Family Communications Course you've just completed. Please indicate your agreements or disagreements with each statement in the following manner.

Strongly Agree	Circle	letters	S
Agree	"	"	A
Undecided	"	"	U
Strongly Disagree	"	"	SD
Cumulative Agreement	"	"	CA
Cumulative Disagree	"	"	CD

SKILL PRACTICE

1. The best way of learning the communication skills presented in the course is the fishbowl method with direct supervision from the instructor.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
20	35	35	10	—	55	10

2. The best way of learning the communication skills presented in the course is on your own; i.e., in dyads, triads, at home, alone.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
0	20	10	65	5	20	70

3. The best and most efficient way of learning the communication skills presented in the course is a combination of supervised and on your own activities.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
80	20				100	

4. I am comfortable with the instructor.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
60	40				100	

DRUG ABUSE

5. I believe there is a relationship between drug abuse and family communications.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
55	40	5			95	

6. I feel that taking this course is a preventive measure to drug abuse (not drug experimentation).

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
30	60	10			90	

7. Drug abuse can be prevented by opening channels of communication between parents and children.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
42	32	21	5		74	5

THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOLS

8. The school is the logical place for the teaching of family communication skills.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
25	55	15	5		80	5

9. Communication skills, similar to those taught in this course, should be offered in school to my children.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
19	71	5	5		90	5

CONCEPTUAL MATERIAL

10. The conceptual material in this course is too difficult.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
0	5	0	67	29	5	96

11. The conceptual material presented in this course is worthwhile.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
50	45	0	5	0	95	5

12. The conceptual material in this course facilitated my gaining insight into my family relationships.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
55	45	0	0	0	100	

CLOSENESS

13. You feel you and your spouse have a closer relationship as a result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
55	40	0	5	0	95	5

14. You feel you and your spouse have better communications as a result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
45	50	0	5	0	95	5

15. Your family has a closer relationship as a result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
35	35	15	15	0	70	15

16. You feel your family has better communication as a result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
25	50	25	0	0	75	0

17. You have better communication with your children as result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
25	60	15	0	0	85	0

18. You feel that you and your first grade child have better communication as a result of this course.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
25	53	21	0	0	79	0

19. You feel you have a better relationship with your children as a result of this course.

COMPETENCY

20. After taking this course I feel more competent to deal with family life.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
20	60	10	10	0	80	10

21. After taking this course I see my children differently.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
5	75	5	15	0	80	15

22. After taking this course I see myself differently.

SA	A	U	D	SD	CA	CD
20	65	0	15	0	85	15

SUBJECTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

Please be as specific as you can when answering.

1. Would you recommend this course to other parents in this school? If yes, what would you tell them? If no, what would you say?
2. What specific behavior changes do you see in your child that you attribute to the learning in the class?
3. What specific behavior changes do you see in yourself that you attribute to this class?
4. What skill practice sessions did you find particularly worthwhile?
5. What skills practice sessions did you find that were not particularly useful to you?
6. Was the length of the course too long, too short, about right?
7. Was the length of each session too long, too short, about right?
8. Additional comments or suggestions:

INCREASING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR COMPETENCIES ON THE JOB THROUGH A DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL

Alan S. Briskin

In order to continually upgrade the quality and effectiveness of guidance services in the public schools, practicing counselors must have the opportunity to improve their skills. They must also have the opportunity to evaluate the function that they serve and make changes according to the demands that our society makes upon its educational institutions.

In 1965 the U. S. Office of Education sponsored a National Conference for State Guidance Supervisors and Counselor Educators. In-service education for counselors was one of the items included on the agenda and a bulletin (Twiford & Sievers, 1965) was published which considered this specific aspect of counseling. Possibly the most significant aspect of the bulletin is that relatively few references are noted for guidance in-service education. This is a reflection of the lack of emphasis which has been given to this area. In this report it was noted that of the seventeen state guidance handbooks available for examination, eight made brief mention of guidance in-service education and only one dealt with the matter in any detail.

Since 1965 the paucity of literature reporting in-service education for counselors has continued, although a few writers have pointed out the necessity of providing such service (Ligon, 1968; O'Hara, 1968). Fitzpatrick (1967) hypothesized that many schools may have established in-service programs for counselors but have not reported this programming in the literature. The data reported by Swartz (1968) is probably more in line with the present state of affairs. He reported that with 295 California high schools contributing data, 67 per cent of the head counselors and 46 per cent of directors of guidance spend less than 5 per cent of their time carrying on in-service education for counselors in their schools. Swartz did not survey elementary schools with counseling staff nor report contributions to in-service work by university based counselor educators.

The 1965 Office of Education Bulletin apparently remains the only substantive statement on in-service education for counselors. The recommendation in the bulletin that development of coun-

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selor competencies requires an individualized approach and subsequent directives from the U. S. Office of Education suggesting the expedience of the approach most likely account for the infrequent reporting of in-service education programming for counselors.

In the 1965 Bulletin it is recommended that a delineation of responsibility and clarification of function in the area of in-service education for counselors should be made among the local school administration unit, the state education agency and the counselor education institution. The responsibility for providing opportunities for self-improvement within the school setting on the part of the counselor rests with the school administration. The state education agency, through its guidance supervisory staff, assumes certain responsibilities which may include promoting and assisting in planning and development at the local level, providing consultant services, acting as liaison between school and other resources setting up experimental or pilot studies and carrying out evaluative procedures for in-service education.

Counselor educators, rather than assume the initiative in organizing in-service programs, are advised to confine their role primarily to that of consultants. However, it is suggested that counselor educators recognize their responsibility for maintaining continuing relationships with practitioners in the field.

In summary, it is apparent that in-service education for counselors that provides them with opportunities to improve their skills and to evaluate the function they serve in the schools is a requisite professional activity. Responsibility for initiating programs rests primarily with the school administration with support suggested from state educaton agencies and counselor education institutions. Unfortunately, it is also apparent that the responsible agencies have neglected this important component of continuing professional development.

Background of the In-Service Project for Elementary School Counselors

In January, 1971, the State of Minnesota, Department of Education, through its guidance supervisory staff initiated and assisted in planning and developing an in-service education program for seven practicing elementary school counselors in two independent school districts. Representatives from four agencies cooperated to implement the plan. They were W. O. Woodworth, Superintendent of Independent School District No. 622, North St. Paul, Minnesota; Ralph Johnson, Director of Guidance Services, Special School District No. 1, Minneapolis, Minnesota; G.

Dean Miller, Elementary School Guidance Consultant, Pupil Personnel Section, Minnesota Department of Education; and Alan S. Briskin, Director of the Elementary School Counselor Preparation Program in the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. The preparation program at the University of Minnesota reflects a systems-developmental model of elementary school counseling (Briskin, 1972b). It was this model of roles and functions that was the content of the in-service program.

With the assistance of Dennis Haversack, another consultant under contract with the Minnesota Department of Education and Richard Fedora, graduate assistant, University of Minnesota, an in-service program covering skills in the systems-developmental model was presented in 40 half-day periods on a regular schedule with the seven counselors in their respective schools. In addition, an evaluation instrument of roles and functions, *The Elementary School Counselor Inventory*, was developed as a performanced based check on counselor, teacher, and administration perceptions of the occurrence of role behaviors and performance effectiveness of the elementary school counselor.

Theoretical Basis for the In-Service Project

Each elementary school aged child is growing and developing according to his own unique genetic and environmental plan. To understand a total development plan a model may be utilized in which the child is observed as the active, competence seeking principal component of his own life system. From this vantage point in his life system, the child perceives and evaluates his developmental progress. Specifically, from the beginning of his life, the child evaluates his physical, social, and intellectual development with the result that this continual evaluation in large part, determines the persistent behavioral patterns observed during the adolescent and adult periods of life (Kohlberg, 1969; White, 1959, 1963).

If the assumptions are accepted that the child is the active principal component of his own life system and that from the beginning of life he evaluates his developmental progress, it follows that identification of the other components of the child's life system are critically important, because they too, have a major impact on what environmental stimuli the child perceives. The child is continually perceiving and interacting with stimuli presented by his parents, siblings and extended family, by the physical, social and economic components of his neighborhood, by his peers, teachers, administrators, administrative structure, and physical surroundings of his school (Briskin, 1972a).

In a parallel process, the child is continually evaluating his developmental progress as the result of his active interaction with these components of his life system. Self-evaluation at any point in a child's life is both influenced by the extent of general developmental awareness the child brings to the interaction and the nature of the stimuli presented. What content the child assimilates depends on his general cognitive development to date. This includes emotional development as well. In other words, the parameters of the child's interaction with his world are his previous cognitive development and his developmental ability to accommodate new stimuli.

In this model of development the child is the beneficiary of a continual development and actualization of universal cognitive potential. However, this development is not automatic. Rather it depends on the qualitative aspects of the child's interaction with his or her environment (Kohlberg, 1969). Provision also is needed to account for the child's evaluation of his developmental progress. As the child actively interacts with his environment assimilating content and accommodating wider and wider sectors of his life system, how does he evaluate physical, intellectual, and social growth? In this model, it is assumed that the child continually evaluates his development as positive and/or negative. These self-evaluations of physical, intellectual, and social growth are content that the child assimilates into what may be called his cognitive structure or view of self.

In sum, we observe the child as the center of his life system. From this position he perceives, mediates and assimilates content presented by the components of his life system, with the extent of content assimilation delimited by cognitive development and stage specific cognitive potential. In a parallel process the child is assimilating the results of his own evaluation of his growth and development. The former assimilatory process results in so-called cognitive structures that determine the child's facility to accommodate wider and wider sectors of his life system. The latter assimilatory process results in cognitive structure that indicates the child's evaluation of his personal development.

The purpose of presenting this model is four-fold:

1) to focus the reader's view on the child as the active principal component of his own life system;

2) to identify the other components of the child's life system who determine the environmental stimuli presented to him;

3) to describe the child's active process of cognitive growth

which has as it parameters his developmental progress to date and his specific stage cognitive potential;

4) to identify two parallel assimilatory processes, one involving content presented by components of the child's life system and the other involving content produced by the child's continuous self-evaluation of his development.

A number of implications may be drawn from this model: (1) Persons interested in the growth and development of children need to be aware of the potential impact of the components of the child's life system in providing content stimuli that a child may assimilate. (2) They need to be sensitive to the results of the child's active interaction with presented stimuli including his evaluation of his developmental experience. (3) Persons responsible for the environmental component in the child's development plan have the responsibility for providing optimal environments for him, so that he may positively experience the development of his cognitive, physical, and social abilities.

In-Service Procedures

Between January, 1971, and June, 1971, the consulting team scheduled 20 half days with three elementary school counselors in North St. Paul, Independent School District No. 622 and 20 half-days with four elementary school counselors in Minneapolis, Special School District No. I.

During the monthly visit the team spent a half day separately with each in-service counselor participant and the equivalent of a half day with the counselors as a group.

The individual visit followed this format:

1) Agenda review for the half-day;

2) Seminar-type discussion of the theoretical and practical aspects of the systems-developmental model;

3) Work with the counselor in his daily schedule covering individual, group, and organizational interventions with children, teachers, principal, and parents;

4) Modeling by the lead consultant of various techniques in the actual settings;

5) Immediate feedback session after each activity. Included in the feedback were the counselor, consulting team member, teacher or principal, parent, and students on occasion where practical;

6) Summary and review of practical and theoretical aspects at the end of the half-day activities. Included in this session were the counselor and consulting team members.

The group visit followed this format:

1) Summaries of the respective individual school visits.
2) Group discussion and critiques of the practical and theoretical aspects of the systems-developmental model;
3) General group discussion designed to develop strategies of mutual cooperation and support for program development in the district;
4) Demonstrations and simulations by the consulting team of various developmental guidance materials and techniques;
5) Informal evaluation of the process and content of the project to date.

The activities and discussions engaged in with the counselors individually and in the group were tape recorded. This procedure provided information on counselor activities from a variety of settings, including the classroom, hallways, teachers' lounge, principal's office, conference room, and counselor's office.

By agreement of all parties at a respective school the tape recorder was turned on at the beginning of the visit and kept operative throughout the half-day session.

The consulting team reviewed the tapes and prepared summary feedback reports that were mailed to the individual counselor approximately one week after the on-site visit.

Evaluation of the In-Service Project

The impact of the in-service project on the counselors, teachers, and principals in the target schools was measured using the Elementary School Counselor Inventory (Appendix B). The development of the "Inventory" evolved out of the in-service experience and the writing of the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis training model for elementary school counselors. Video taping on a pre-post basis had to be abandoned in the evaluation, because it interfered with in-service procedures.

The inventory is a performance based instrument designed to evaluate the translation and implementation of the systems-developmental counseling model in the school setting. The seven competency areas reflect the position that the counselor's primary role in the elementary school is to work with the components in a child's life system in order to provide an atmosphere within which each child may perceive his development as positive.

The seven competency areas assessed by the Elementary School Counselor Inventory are:

1) The counselor's use of various counseling techniques
2) The counselor's effectiveness in building and maintaining relationships
3) The counselor's role as a sensitive process observer and maintainer of open communication in the system
4) The counselor's role as a system consultant
5) The counselor's role as a model for counseling behavior
6) The counselor's definition and clarification of the systems-developmental point of view
7) The counselor's use of tests

Each of the 130 items in the *Inventory* is designed to be evaluated by the practicing counselor, the building principal and the teachers. The items, in addition, can serve as definable action objectives for those responsible for the guidance function in the elementary school to be implemented at some future time.

Pilot Test of the Inventory

At the end of the in-service instruction, the Inventory was used in three schools with teachers to quantify operationally defined behaviors. In Table 1 data from teacher responses to inventory question no. 1 are presented as an example of data output. Each of the 130 defined behaviors was analyzed in this way for each school.

An analysis of the data in Table 1 indicates the following:

1) At the end of the in-service period, 13 teachers in the school saw behavioral specification No. 1 occurring.
2) By the end of the in-service period the trend of respondents' evaluation of the behavior was towards considering the behavior as occurring regularly and as being accomplished with ease and confidence.
3) At the end of the in-service period, five grade 1-2 teachers saw behavioral specification No. 1 occurring.
4) By the end of the in-service period the trend of grade 1-2 teacher respondents' evaluation of the behavior was towards considering the behavior as occurring regularly and as being accomplished with ease and confidence.

Table 1

Analysis of Question #1 "In classroom guidance activities, the counselor uses various techniques to facilitate full participation, e.g. semi-structured stimulus material (stories, puppets, charts, pictures, etc.)**

Elementary School Counselor Inventory

Population responding	Is behavior occurring		If behavior is occurring number of respondents evaluating behavior as				
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4	5*
School #1 N = 23	13	10	2	6	–	5	–
Grade 1-2 teachers N = 9	5	4	1	2	–	2	–
Grade 3-4 teachers N = 8	4	4	1	1	–	2	–
Grade 5-6 teachers N = 6	4	2	–	3	1	–	–

*See Appendix A for score values

**Data were analyzed using the *University of Minnesota Descriptive Statistical Package* (UMST 600). The program generated means and frequency distributions for each of the 130 performanced based behavioral specifications.

5) At the end of the in-service period, four grade 3-4 teachers saw behavioral specification No. 1 occurring.

6) By the end of the in-service period, the trend of grade 3-4 teacher respondents' evaluation of the behavior was toward considering the behavior as occurring regularly and as being accomplished with ease and confidence.

7) At the end of the in-service period, five grade 5-6 teachers saw behavioral specification No. 1 occurring.

8) By the end of the in-service period, the trend of grade 5-6 teacher respondents' evaluation of the behavior was toward considering the behavior as occurring somewhat regularly and with some ease and confidence.

Use of the Data

In a feedback seminar with the elementary school counselors involved in the in-service project, the analysis of the 130 performanced based behavioral specifications and the variables making up a response to a specification were explained. In addition the consult team and the counselors cooperatively planned a feedback model for implementation in the counselor's respective school. In the feedback model, the counselor was responsible for calling a series of meetings at his or her school to report on the data generated in this project and initiating on-going communication for program development based on the inventory results.

In these meetings teachers, principal and counselor discussed the school guidance program using the Inventory data output as their guide. In the process teachers became more familiar with the goals and objectives of a developmental guidance program. The counselor received feedback on his or her program and personal effectiveness.

Summary and Recommendations

The purpose of this in-service project was to make explicit and present the systems-developmental model of elementary school counseling to area counselors on a pilot basis. The model is the organizing concept of the elementary school counselor training program at the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. The in-service process provided the opportunity to further develop and test the model constructs.

The author and two consulting team members provided 40 half-days of on-site in-service training during this project workings with the counselors in most if not all of their various activities.

Sessions were tape recorded and summaries typed and sent to the counselor approximately a week after the on-site visit. At the end of the in-service project the counselors, principals, and teachers in the respective schools were asked to pilot test *The Elementary School Counselor Inventory*, a 130 item performance based instrument designed to evaluate the implementation level of the systems-developmental model. Sufficient data were collected on a voluntary basis to substantiate the functional effectiveness of the Inventory as an assessment instrument for measuring counselor performance based behaviors.

This report closes with a series of recommendations:

1) In as much as the on-site in-service education presented to the elementary school counselors over a five month period on a relatively intensive basis appeared to promote positive development of skills, this format of in-service

education should be continued and offered to other elementary school counselors in Minnesota.

2) *The Elementary School Counselor Inventory* may be used by the counselor to establish understanding of the systems-developmental model as well as to establish a performance baseline at the beginning of a school year.

3) The *Inventory* may be used as an interim and end-of-the-year evaluation of the implementation of 130 specified counselor behaviors.

4) The *Inventory* may be used by the counselor as a diagnostic instrument to indicate which of the performance-based behaviors he is perceived to be implementing and how well. The *Inventory* also may be used to alert the counselor to his or her grade level effectiveness.

Ed. Note: Another suggestion might be to use the inventory as a basis for logging counselor time and effort and relate such data to hoped for guidance outcome variables in an effort to validate the theoretical model similar to the Miller, Gum and Bender (1972) research.

APPENDIX A

Directions — The Elementary School Counselor Inventory

On the following pages are statements that refer to the role and activities of the elementary school counselor. For each statement, two responses are required. The first response pertains to whether the behavior is occurring or applies to this particular school. The second response refers to what extent the behavior applies or is being implemented in this school. The response set for each statement is as follows:

Example O: Y ( ) N ( ) F ( ) N/A ( )
0 ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( )

First response:

Y — "Yes" — the behavior mentioned in the statement is occurring.

N — "No" — the behavior is not occurring and there are no plans to request it.

F — "Future" — the behavior is presently not occurring but is planned or desired at a future time.

N/A — "Not Applicable" — the statement in the inventory is not understood, cannot be answered with the information available, or has no relevance in this school.

Second Response:

0 — Behavior is not occurring (to be marked when the first response is N, F, or N/A.)

1 — Behavior occurs but is awkwardly performed.

2 — Behavior occurs somewhat regularly and with some ease and confidence.

3 — Behavior occurs regularly and with some ease and confidence.

4 — Behavior occurs regularly and is accomplished with ease and confidence.

5 — Behavior occurs very regularly and is accomplished with much ease, confidence, and expertise.

Please note that numbers 1 through 5 should be considered only when "Yes" is checked for the first response.

Example OO:

OO. The counselor uses small groups with children to help them develop communication skills.

OO: Y ( ) N ( ) F ( ) N/A ( )
0 ( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( )

Assume that at a point in time the behavior described in example #00 had not occurred but was contemplated. The space under (F) "Future" is darkened in the first response set (a). In the second part of the first response set (a), the space under (0) is filled in.

This inventory is designed to be completed by various members of the school professional staff. You are requested to respond to each question from your particular perception of the counselor working in your school and community.

The Elementary School Counselor Inventory

Name______________________________ Date__________________

School____________________ City______________ State____________

Position________________________ Number of years in position________

Be sure your marks are heavy and dark. Erase completely any answer you wish to change.

Y N F N/A
1. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
2. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
3. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
4. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
5 ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
6. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
7. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
8. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
9. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
10. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
Y N F N/A
130. ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )
0 1 2 3 4 5
( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( ) ( )

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APPENDIX B

The Elementary School Counselor Inventory

I. **The counselor's use of various counseling techniques**
In classroom guidance activities, the counselor uses various techniques to facilitate full participation, e.g.

1. Semi-structured stimulus material (e.g., stories, puppets, charts, pictures)
2. Clarification (simplifying speaker's words)
3. Restatement (speaker's words rephrased)
4. Reflection of feelings (mirroring speaker's feelings back to him)
5. Probing feelings ("I get the sense that you really feel happy, scared, nervous, etc.")
6. Open-ended questions ("What do you think now . . .")
7. Asks other students to describe classmate's feelings ("Can you tune into Bob's feelings?")

    8. Positively reinforces contributions by students
    9. Positively reinforces contributions by teachers
    10. Focuses on the process as well as the content of discussion
    11. Summarizes (Short, concise restatement of content and process)
    12. Positively reinforces students for talking with each other.

13. Students are accustomed to the counselor using communication skills, such as, summarization, clarification, restatement, reflection of feelings.

In guidance activities teachers are clearly invited to

    14. Pre-plan with the counselor
    15. Participate
    16. Co-lead
    17. Process-observe
    18. Join in post activity feedback sessions

19. Sociograms are used and the information shared to help teachers and students understand relationships in the classroom
20. The counselor uses human relations exercises, e.g., the "power line", to help students clarify their position in the class.
21. The counselor uses techniques that facilitate calling on everyone who wants to contribute on issues.
22. The counselor suggests ways that the affective process can be integrated with the curriculum (e.g., praising a child for reading a picture caption during guidance activities.)
23. In the classroom direct honest communication is encouraged. Children are encouraged to talk with rather than about each other.
24. In classroom guidance activities, the counselor uses various simulation techniques to help children learn communication skills, e.g. role playing, creative dramatics, fish-bowl pairing of students and modeling.
25. The counselor presents concrete stimuli so the children can, for example, see, feel, grasp and hear in the process of understanding the task.
26. The counselor facilitates small groups which meet in and out of the class to work out conflicts.
27. Sometimes in small group work the teacher and the counselor co-facilitate.
28. The classroom meeting has been employed in the class.
29. In class meetings, the teacher is encouraged to co-lead with the counselor.
30. The counselor recognizes a child's comment with a compliment rather than just saying "right".
31. The counselor has formed small groups to build rapport and teach children to communicate with each other.

32. The counselor encourages all students to respond during guidance activities, while helping them to learn rules of group discussion.

33. The counselor uses spontaneous occurrences in the classroom to help demonstrate his material and achieve understanding of ideas.

34. Before initiating guidance activities the counselor pre-plans or simulates with individuals or classes to set the stage for what will be taking place, e.g., role playing with a shy member of a creative dramatics group, class orientation to visitors, or preparing for a new class member.

II. The counselor's effectiveness in building and maintaining relationships

The counselor is helping to build effective support systems for:

35. Teachers
36. Students
37. Parents
38. Principal
39. Himself

Feedback loops, i.e. chances to share ideas, have been established with:

40. Teachers
41. Students
42. Parents
43. Principals

44. The counselor meets with classes on a regular basis so program continuity is established.

45. The counselor regularly schedules meetings with the principal to discuss the counselor role.

46. In working with students, teachers, administrators, and parents, the counselor sincerely tries not to be either "one up" or "one down"

III. The counselor's role as a sensitive process observer and maintainer of open communication in the system

47. The counselor arranges the physical components in the room e.g., chairs and tables, so that the environment is conducive to group and individual interaction.

Various methods of providing feedback are employed:

48. audio tape recordings
49. video tape
50. face to face exchanges
51. written impressions

The counselor serves as a process observer in:

52. Staff Meetings
53. Grade Level Meetings
54. The total school environment

55. The natural and spontaneous interests of children are used in deciding on the use of various counseling techniques.

56. The counselor gathers and analyzes appropriate amounts of data before interventions are proposed.

57. The counselor defines issues clearly.

58. The counselor helps students and teachers to clarify the basis of their relationships.

59. The counselor checks out the accuracy of his process observations with the persons involved. (students, teachers, principal, parents)

60. In staff meetings, the counselor asks for feedback on his ideas and activities

61. At staff meetings and in informal contacts with colleagues, the counselor facilitates person's getting at their feelings about various concerns and offers support and clarifies alternatives that may lead to resolution.

62. Before going into a classroom the counselor checks out the rules i.e., the implicit behavioral contract between the teacher and the students.

63. In the classroom meetings and other settings, the counselor has identified students who may benefit from individual or small group counseling.

64. The counselor uses process observation to point out what is going on at the moment.

65. In consultations the counselor points out components that have been overlooked but are important in the functioning of the entire system.

66. The counselor is able to describe (analyze) the components of a system.

67. The counselor is able to describe (synthesize) the components of a system into a new whole.

68. The counselor has been helpful in describing or analyzing the school environment.

69. The counselor has been helpful in describing or analyzing the curriculum.

70. The counselor is helpful in process observing teaching techniques used in the classroom.

71. Using a variety of techniques the counselor checks out with the class or person(s) if it is permissible to proceed; checking carefully that the answer "yes" is not just a submissive response.

IV. The counselor's role as a systems consultant

The counselor helps to arrange and facilitate:

    72. Staff meetings
    73. Grade level meetings

74. The counselor helps staff understand the need to present concrete stimuli in learning activities with elementary children.

75. Using process observations the counselor gathers data that enables him to propose strategies that may lead to a better functioning system.

The counselor conducts many activities outside his office:

    76. Facilitates discussion and activities in classroom meetings
    77. Demonstrates developmental guidance material
    78. Consults with teachers individually, on grade levels, and as a staff
    79. Consults with students individually and in groups
    80. Consults with the principal

81. The counselor pre-plans with teachers to define their respective roles in a specific guidance activity.

82. The counselor helps to plan follow-up guidance activities with the teacher.

83. The counselor helps teachers to exercise their right to accept and work out their feelings about students.

84. The counselor has acted as a facilitator in student-teacher confrontations.

85. The counselor consults with teachers to discuss relationships between guidance and curriculum activities.

86. During classroom guidance activities the teacher and counselor encourage the children to critique their curriculum and to offer inputs on what they would like to learn.

87. The counselor serves as a liaison between family, school, teachers, students, community service agencies.

88. After a classroom meeting or process observation session, the counselor gives feedback to the teacher.

89. The counselor has established office hours when parents, students, and staff know they will be able to contact him.

V. The counselor's role as a model for counseling behavior.

90. The counselor's focus is on positive rather than negative behavior.

91. The counselor appears "to have his head together" and consequently, is useful in helping others in a variety of ways.

92. By his own behavior, the counselor is helping to teach openness and honest expression of feelings.

93. The counselor is helping to facilitate understanding the value of giving positive reinforcement for childrens' appropriate behavior as a means to modify and correct inappropriate behavior.

94. The counselor demonstrates by his behavior a respect for children's status as children, rather than perceiving them as "little adults."

95. The counselor models the feedback process, i.e., he submits himself to the process of receiving feedback and suggestions as well as giving the same.

The counselor has implemented a model of counselor-teacher cooperation in guidance activities beginning with the

96. counselor modeling behavior and demonstrating materials

97. moving to teacher and counselor co-leading the activity

98. continuing with the teacher assuming primary responsibility for some classroom guidance activities

99. maintaining the model through counselor assistance in new activities

VI. The counselor's definition and clarification of the systems — developmental point of view

100. The counselor has defined the systems — developmental point of view in counseling as a means of carefully looking at how the various components of a child's life system, e.g., family, peers, school, and self, affect the child's growth and development.

The counselor defines and redefines his role in an on-going process, to:

101. Teachers

102. Students
103. Parents
104. Principal
105. Other staff members

106. The counselor presents guidance materials and activities to staff as a means they can use to help children learn about themselves.

The counselor is ready to provide in-service courses in:

107. Child growth and development
108. Group dynamics
109. Communications skills
110. Child management

111. In grade level and other types of faculty meetings, the counselor discusses how to sense when conflicts need referral to the counselor.

112. The counselor leads informal discussions on child growth and development.

113. The counselor keeps parents informed about program initiation and progress.

114. The counselor is ready to offer parent education courses

115. In consultations, the counselor stresses the interrelatedness of all components of a child's life system and explains how changing one component affects the other components as well as the entire system.

VII. The Counselor's Use of Tests

116. The counselor is helping school personnel to use group test results as a means to look at curriculum, in-service needs, staffing arrangements, and general student needs.

The counselor evaluates group tests to determine their applicability to

117. the current curriculum
118. the present student population
119. the school's educational philosophy
120. the community's values

The counselor has defined his role in group testing to include

121. Pre-test training of test administrators.
122. Facilitating sensitivity to physical and comfort arrangements in the test room.
123. Facilitating sensitivity to individual children's needs and idiosyncracies during testing.
124. In-service training of school staff in test interpretation.
125. Facilitating implementation of ideas generated from the inmation aspect of test interpretation.
126. Offering of seminars for parents in understanding test results.

The counselor offers his assistance in constructing and interpreting informal tests, such as;

127. sociograms
128. tests of self-understanding
129. problem-solving tests
130. decision-making tests

STUDENT, TEACHER AND PARENT EVALUATION OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

Gerald A. Dolentz*

Need for Guidance and Counseling Program Evaluation

In this age of "accountability" and tight money, new school programs have to prove themselves. Many questions needed to be answered and new directions sought so it was decided that the elementary school guidance counseling program should be evaluated by getting feed-back from students, teachers and parents. The administration and the counselor needed to know what students, teachers and parents thought of the elementary school guidance and counseling program and also have them provide direction for the program next year. The first evaluation was in 1970 when 300 families, 600 students and 25 teachers were surveyed.

In 1971 a follow-up evaluation was completed using random samples of parents and students rather than the total groups. Twenty-five staff members including the administrator and special area teachers were also surveyed.

Washington-Kosciusko, an elementary school of 700 students in grades K-6 located in the east end of Winona, was chosen by the Minnesota Department of Education for a pilot program in elementary school counseling in 1968 under National Defense Education Act (NDEA) and later Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act 1965 (ESEA). The elementary school counselor was to operate under a developmental framework and be an extension of the school services to prevent problems. A new elementary school counselor was employed in 1969 to implement the program.

Washington-Kosciusko, one of twelve elementary schools in Independent School District No. 861, was the second building to get an elementary school counselor because of the large enrollment of the building. Washington-Kosciusko has a cross-section of cultural patterns and was designated a Target School in 1972 for Title I.

**Mr. Dolentz is the elementary school counselor at Washington-Kosciusko Elementary School in Winona which received program support from the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.*

Guidance and Counseling Program

The elementary school counseling program at Washington-Kosciusko follows the developmental model and a job description found in Appendix A was completed in 1970. The elementary school counselor visits 25 classrooms for thirty minute periods weekly at which time he asks if the students have concerns or problems they wish to discuss. If not, the counselor presents a developmental guidance unit or experience to the class.

Besides the classroom weekly visits, the elementary school counselor has from nine to twelve small counseling groups meeting weekly for thirty minutes. Individual counseling sessions are provided as well as consultation and coordination with teachers, parents and resource people.

A breakdown of time provided by a printout from the Pupil Personnel Services, Minnesota Department of Education* in 1972 shows the elementary school counselor spending 30 per cent of his time in classrooms, 30 per cent with individual and small group counseling and 40 per cent in consultation, coordination and parent involvement.

The developmental elementary school counseling program reflects a joint effort by teachers, administration, students, parents and the elementary school counselor. Mr. E. W. Mueller, Director of Elementary Education and Mr. C. L. Lehman, Principal, helped the elementary school counselor set up the developmental guidance program as it exists at Washington-Kosciusko school today.

Student Evaluation of the Guidance and Counseling Program

A student questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered to a randomly selected class at each grade level K-6 at Washington-Kosciusko school. Twenty-five per cent of the students were surveyed. The students in kindergarten, first and second grades were given the questionnaire individually and their responses were recorded by 6th grade students.

The results of the 185 questionnaires (100 per cent of the sample) administered were tabulated in percentages as reported in Table I. It is quite interesting that 91 per cent of the children see the counselor's classroom visits as meeting with them and yet 85 per cent of the students would like to be in a small group with the counselor.

**Mr. Dolentz is participating in a study on counselor education under the direction of the Editor.*

The focus of the guidance program is upon self-concept and it was interesting that 78 per cent of students feel good about themselves. Elementary students, (68 per cent), feel free to talk to their parents about a concern or problem. Also 26 per cent of the students said they had a problem that they would like to talk to the counselor about it privately and that 74 per cent of the children feel free to talk to the counselor.

A random selection of K-6 student responses to subjective questions 1-3 are presented below.

Question 1 "What do you think the counselor does?" was responded to by the following:

"Helps you with your problems."

"Helps students figure out problems or discusses things."

"Helps people who have problems and talks about feelings."

"Helps people sometimes."

"He tries to get you to get along with others."

"He helps kids who are in trouble or kids who have problems."

"Guides kids in the right way."

"The counselor goes around and spends a little time with as many people as he can and helps them with their problems. He comes to all the classrooms and has a little discussion. He helps us a lot on our way."

"He teaches me good things. . . . Helps you understand things."

"Helps you think things over. . . . Teaches. . . . Hurts people."

"A counselor helps you know what other people sometimes feel if they don't trust you."

"I don't think he does very much to help us learn things about feeling and stuff."

"Helps children make friends."

"He helps you stay out of fights."

"He talks to you about things you have done or your friends."

Question 2 "How can a counselor help you?" was answered with the following:

"When somebody treats you like a bully. . . . by teaching us."

"He can help me to make friends."

"Help solve my problems."

"Helps me let my words out when I want to say something."

"He could help me if my grades go down."

Table I

Student Questionnaire Responses

(in per cent)

N = 185

		Yes	No	?
1.	Do you feel good about yourself?	78	7	15
2.	Has the counselor met with you?	91	8	1
3.	Have you met with the counselor in a group?	69	30	1
4.	Can you feel free to talk to the counselor?	74	14	12
5.	Would you like to be in a small group with the counselor?	85	11	4
6.	Do you have a concern or problem that you would like to talk to the counselor about privately?	26	64	10
7.	Do you have friends at school?	89	8	3
8.	Do you feel free to talk to your parents about a concern or problem you may have?	68	23	9
9.	Have you tried to see the counselor this year with a concern or problem?	42	54	4
10.	Did you find the counselor to be too busy to be helpful when you needed help? (Answer only if you answered Yes to number 9).	28	49	23

Question 2 "How can a counselor help you?" (continued)

"He can help you learn to be nice."

"Help you communicate with another."

"No way."

"I don't know, all the help I need I get from my parents."

"If I have troubles, he helps me learn what to do with them, (but very little)."

"Get along with my brothers and sisters."

"He makes you feel good and that stuff."

"By listening."

Question 3 "What concerns or problems might you talk to the counselor about?" brought these responses:

"Fights. . . . Math class, report cards, or if I'm getting along with kids in school."

"By asking things. . . . Being rejected."

"Friends, school, families, problems."

"Bullies and other people."

"About fighting on the playground or in the room or anywhere in school."

"People stealing things from you."

"Nothing. . . . Throwing food in the lunchroom."

"How cows get milk."

"Love, hate, parents, teachers, teachers pets, tests, smart people, dumb people."

"Boyfriends and girlfriends, pollution."

"Entering Junior High in 7th grade, social problems."

"About my temper."

A concensus of student responses that give understanding and direction to the counseling program next year are:

a. More time should be allowed in my schedule for unscheduled self-referral problems.

b. Most students feel free to talk to the counselor about personal problems.

c. The students enjoyed the classroom visits, especially role-playing.

d. Most of the students sought help in improving academic work along with self-concept, improving peer relationships and resolving teacher and/or parental conflict.

Teacher Evaluation of the Guidance and Counseling Program

A teacher questionnaire (Appendix C) was given to the Washington-Kosciusko staff. Twenty-three out of twenty-five or 92 per cent of the questionnaires were returned. The questionnaires were filled out anonymously to insure truthful responses.

Upon receiving the questionnaire, each questionnaire was given a letter code to show how individual teachers responded to each question. The letter code was assigned to show the total picture of the counseling program as seen by the individual teacher. It is extremely worthwhile to follow each code through the entire questionnaire. In no case was it intended to identify an individual teacher by name.

Tables II and III show the responses of the individual teacher to the objective parts of the questionnaire. The average number of visits to the 18 classroom teachers was 27. Some interesting data noted are:

a. Sixteen out of 17 classroom teachers see the counselor as a sincere person that they can relate to.

b. Twenty-two out of 23 educators discussed concerns with the counselor.

c. Special teachers, not to be confused with regular classroom teachers, see the counseling program as one of individual counseling and consultation rather than developmental.

d. One out of 18 classroom teachers saw the number of classroom visits and length of presentations as being unsatisfactory.

e. The staff saw the counseling program and counselor more positive this year than last year.

f. The counselor worked with 13 classrooms in selecting pupils for small group counseling.

g. The counselor worked with 8 teachers in classroom grouping, 6 teachers in classroom environment and 8 teachers in classroom sociometric. Teachers were reluctant to use the services of the counselor to assess classroom learning climate.

The subjective responses of the individual teachers were quoted from their questionnaire. All that the teachers wrote will be found under the listings of subjective teachers responses. Many more teachers saw the counseling program as a necessity and more positive this year. Classroom teachers wanted more time with the counseling service e.g., more classroom visits, individual counseling and small group counseling.

Subjective 1 Indicate positive and negative reactions to the counseling and guidance program.

A. "Good classroom activities, perhaps more group work if time permits or discuss individually with some cases."

B. "I am happy with it."

C. "Children need someone to go to."

D. "A much needed program."

F. "Children release feelings good and learn to recognize and evaluate these feelings."

Table II
Counseling and Guidance Program
Washington-Kosciusco School 1971
Teacher Questionnaire
(N = 23)

Teacher Code	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w
Classroom visits	24	30	30	30	30	25	30	0	25	25	17	30	25	30	27	25	30	30	27	0	0	0	0

		Very Satisfactory	Satisfactory	Somewhat Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Don't know and Not Applicable	Total Teachers Responding
Development approach clearly defined	1.	(8) b c d g l n p q	(6) a e f j k p	(2) i m		(5) h t u v w	21
Demonstrated Developmental guidance units in my room	3.	q s (10) b c e h k l n o	p r (9) a d f g i j m			(4) t u v w	23
Demonstrated understanding of children	3.	m o p q r s (14) b c d e g h k l	(7) a f i j n t u			(2) v w	23
Is sincere with whom I can relate	4.	p r s (11) a b c d g j l p	(5) e f k m q		(1) i	(5) h t u v w	22
Frequency of room visits	5.	n o p q r s (14) b d e f g j k l	(2) a c	(2) i m		(5) h t u v w	23
Flexibility and spontaneity in dealing with feelings during visits	6.	a b c d e f g h(16) j k l o q r s u	(7) i m n p t v w				23
Willing to discuss individual cases	7.	a b c d e h j k(16) n o p q r s u w	(7) f g i l m t v				23
Competence and constructive suggestions were given	8.	m n o p w (13) a b c d e g k l	(5) f h r s v	(3) i j u		(1) t	22
Teacher can relate with ease to counselor	9.	(6) a d e h n s	q r v (10) b c f j k l o	(4) i g p w		(2) m t	22
I can discuss problems with	10.	l n o q s t u (15) a b c d e g h k	(5) f p r v w	(2) i j		(1) m	23
Competent to help both teachers and pupils	11.	o p q r u (13) b c d e h k l n	v w (8) a f g j m s	(1) i		(1) t	23
Tact and diplomacy is shown	12.	a b d g h m n o(11) p s w	(7) c e f j k r v	(1) i		(4) l q t u	23

Table III Part B

Teachers' Questionnaire
(N = 23)

		Total
1. Teacher Code	a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w	
2. Counselor has worked with (Not applicable for special teachers)		
a. individual	a b c d e f g i j k l m n o p q r s	18
b. small group	a d e f j k l m n o p q s	13
c. whole class	a b c d e f g i j k l m n o p q r s	18
d. no one		0
3. I have worked with counselor in consultation about		
a. parent conference	a b d e g h j k l m n o p q r s u v w	19
b. problem cases	a b c d e f g h i j k l m o q r s t v w	20
c. choosing counseling group	d e f h j k l n o p q s u	13
d. classroom grouping	e h j n o p r s	8
e. behavior problems	a b d e g h i j k m o p q r s	15
f. classroom environment	h j n o p s	6
g. sociometric of classroom	d e h j k l n o	8
h. referral cases	a b f g h i j l n o p q s t v w	16
4. Counselor could assist with		
a. discipline problems	a b c d e f h j k n o p q r s u v w	18
b. withdrawn, insecure child	a c d e f g h j k l m o p q r s t u v w	20
c. gifted students	d h l n o r s	7
d. underachievers	a b d f g h i j k l n o s u w	15
e. intellectually below average student	b e f h j k l n o q s u v w	14
f. referrals	a b c e f g h i j k m n o q r s u v w	19
5. Techniques that would be helpful to you		
a. classroom environment assessment	d e f h r s	7
b. role playing	b e f h i j k l m n o p q r s u	16
c. parent conference	a b e f h j k l n o p q r s t u v w	18
d. assessment of child's concerns	b d e f g h j l m o p q r s u v w	17
e. assessment of classroom learning climate	e f h n o r s	7
f. facilitation of referral service	b e f g h j n o p q r s u v w	15
g. home visits	a e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t v w	19
h. classroom guidance presentation	a e f h i k l n o p q r s	13
i. assessment of classroom social relationships	c d e f g h i n o p q r s	13
j. group counseling	c d e f h j l m n o p q r s u v w	17
k. individual counseling	a b c d e f h j k m n o p q r s t u w	19
l. test interpretation	b d e f h j n o p r s v w	13
m. curriculum planning	e f h j n o r s	8

G. “Very good.”

H. “Its strengths are that it is basically developmental and that our counselor relates well to students and staff. A sequence of activities is needed.”

J. “The greatest positive reaction I have to the counseling program was that I saw quite a bit of listening occurring on the part of the counselor. Negatively I felt there were times when the “generation gap” was evident.”

K. “The services provided to me were fine.”

L. “I am very satisfied with the guidance work at W-K. I am in favor of him coming to work with the entire class and small groups.”

M. “See 2 and 3.”

N. “I think it is great.”

O. “Jerry has helped me with all kinds of things.”

P. “This program gives a child an opportunity to talk out problems with an understanding person besides a teacher.”

Q. “Children are gaining a good self-concept.”

R. “I have seen great things happen in the classroom.”

S. “Individual counseling and group counseling gave the child a person to relate to when he couldn’t go to his parents.”

W. “Jerry has been of great help when he was needed.”

Subjective 2 Your opinion of the major strengths of the counseling and guidance program at W-K.

A. “To help with referrals and working with students.”

B. “Good rapport with my kids.”

C. “Being there when you need him.”

D. “The program: 1. Takes care of individual needs. 2. Studies the child in dept for assessing how to make changes in child behavior.”

E. “Role playing as a learning technique. Individual and group counseling solution of potential and prevalent problems.”

F. “I’ve seen the school’s attitude change.”

G. “Very good.”

H. “The counselor.”

I. "The counselors concern for people."

J. "I think these exist in the continuity of the program and in the fact that the children are made aware of the counselor as a friend from the very beginning that they know enough to turn to the counselor when they really need him and are not afraid to do so."

Subjective 2 continued

K. "Helping solve individual student problems such as withdrawn and bully types."

L. "He works with all children."

M. "Individual personal contact between counselor and child."

N. "In any emergency he is willing to help."

O. "The strength is the counselor himself."

P. "The counselor has a good understanding of children and is sincere and confidential in dealing with all problems."

Q. "Helps me see the students in a different light."

R. "The informality the counselor shows the parents, children and myself."

S. "He's great with parents, kids and me."

V. "It is helping to build better self-image in the individual student."

Subjective 3 Your listing of major weaknesses.

A. "Can't say — don't know all areas."

B. "None that I know of."

D. "As a teacher I sometimes feel left out because I'd like to know what the students say in small group and individual counseling. The students tell me "you're not supposed to know."

E. "Classroom noise gets quite loud and children (many of them) get smart alec acting."

F. "There is none that I'm aware of."

G. "Should have more counselor-parent conferences.

H. "Outside educational activities which are essential in promotion and development of elementary counseling hinders continuity in classroom."

J. "See no. 1."

K. "Too many students for one counselor."

L. "Not enough time — I wish it were possible for him to come more than once a week."

M. "Class discussions are sometimes not relevant to child's life."

N. "Too little time.

O. "He's really busy."

P. "That we don't get it every week and the children miss it."

Q. "Not enough time to reach individuals on a one to one basis."

R. "Not enough time for all of us."

S. "Not being able to meet with us every week."

W. "Doesn't report back to me right away."

Subjective 4 Suggested improvements for next year.

A. "More individual pupil discussions if needed."

B. "More time with the counselor."

C. "None. I won't be here."

D. "Tell us (teachers) about the program at the workshop next year."

Subjective 4 continued

E. "More time in the classroom and for individual and group counseling."

F. "Be on time."

G. "More time."

H. "Counselor must keep his cool. This will come with added experience."

I. "Please see to it teachers are informed of the counselors absence on scheduled days of counseling."

J. "I see complete honesty being striven for on the part of the students in the program. I believe communications could be improved."

K. "Make classroom presentations a little more mature for a particular age."

M. "Perhaps more questioning of class and teacher would reveal more topics."

N. "Be there when I need you."

O. "Continue the same way as this year. It is very beneficial."

P. "Specifically point out any problems that children might have early in the year."

Q. "Stay as you are."

R. "We should organize a discussion group for teachers."

S. "How about a workshop for teachers on communication."

T. "When a conference with parents is scheduled, I would like to know about it."

U. "I don't know."

W. "Stay the same."

Subjective 5 Your general reaction to this year's counseling and guidance program.

A. "Good response between counselor and pupil."

B. "I'm happy with it."

C. "Very satisfactory."

D. "I felt the students used the counseling program this year. It is helping some very much. As a teacher I can't listen as much as I should to their problms."

E. "Very necessary and fine. You really helped me."

F. "Quite favorable. The children looked forward to it and it was a time they could speak their feelings freely."

G. "Very good."

H. "Counselor must not involve himself in evaluation of personnel and he must not assume direct responsibility for discipline."

J. "I don't know how I'd teach without it. I'm especially happy about small group and individual counseling that was done with my class. I always had the feeling that I could turn to the counselor for advice and help and also that I could refer individually with particular problems with whom I might have a personality clash."

K. "Well satisfied."

L. "I have been pleased with the units etc., that have been discussed."

M. "On the most part worthwhile. Some children did "open up" during sessions."

Subjective 5 continued

N. "Very good."

O. "Successful."

P. "It is a must in our schools. I have had much contact with it."

Q. "It has been a very good year."

R. "The program has been of great help."

S. "I think the program has come a long way in two years."

V. "Many thanks for helping with difficult parent-teacher conferences."

W. "Keep up the good work."

Subjective 6 Other comments.

A. "Children coming to school with continued temperamental trouble. An immediate call to home to find out what may have caused it would be helpful."

B. "What can I say. Thank you."

C. "Counseling seems to be working out well."

D. "Okay."

E. "Thank you for your help Jerry!"

H. "I am partial as I believe that our counseling program is an integral part of our school and rates second to none in the state."

J. "Who wants perfection anyway?"

K. "Jerry, I really don't know what to say. I'm very satisfied that you're there when I need you. Everything has been fine and you're always ready to listen."

N. "Keep up the good work."

O. "Have a good year next year."

P. "Keep the faith."

Q. "Thank you for your help."

R. "You were available when I needed you."

S. "You're okay."

T. "Thank you for your understanding."

Parent Evaluation of the Counseling Program

A parent questionnaire (Appendix D) was sent out to 67 families of Washington-Kosciusko students. This was a random selection, one out of four families. These questionnaires were brought home by the students and then sent back in the mail to the school in a self addressed envelope.

Sixty-four out of 67 or 95 per cent of the questionnaires were returned. Of the 64 questionnaires returned, 52 families took time to respond to the subjective questions on the questionnaire.

Table IV gives the responses in percentages based on the questionnaires returned. Some of the items that need careful consideration are:

a. Eighty-three percent of the parents indicated that they knew who the elementary school counselor was at W-K. A goal to set would be for all the families to know the elementary school counselor.

b. Eighty per cent of the parents knew that the counselor helped all children and which shows they understand the developmental framework of the program.

c. Ninety per cent of the parents indicated they felt free to contact the counselor if they had a concern. This indicates a positive relationship for parents and the counselor to work together.

d. Ninety-two per cent of the parents indicated they would encourage their child to contact the counselor with a concern or a problem. More parents see the counselor as a helpful person rather than a threat.

e. Eighty-six per cent of the parents felt there is a need for a counselor in the elementary school and this supports the idea of developmental guidance rather than only a remedial approach.

f. Eighty-six per cent of the parents would like to be members of small groups discussing child raising concerns or problems so, time should be provided for this.

The parental questionnaire had three subjective questions which parents were asked to respond to. Their written answers have been directly quoted below.

Subjective Question 12 Please state your feelings concerning the major strengths of the counseling program.

"I have only one child in school, he is in the first grade. As far as I know the counselor has never talked to him. I know nothing about the counseling program. I do feel a counseling program is needed especially for the older children."

"Children are not afraid to talk to the counselor, makes a better student."

"Don't know of them. . . . The whole program. . . . I think it is a must."

"Preventing problems before they happen is great. . . . Excellent!"

"The biggest strength is Mr. Dolentz. The children all know him, like him and know he is "on their side" but wouldn't be a coddler. The classroom visits have been valuable."

"I think there are many children who need this program. . . . The counselor."

Table IV

Parental Questionnaire Responses Concerning the Elementary Counseling Program

(in per cent)

N = 64

	Yes	No	?
1. My child talks about the school counselor at home.	73	20	7
2. I know who the counselor is at W-K School.	83	16	1
3. The elementary school counselor tends to help only problem children.	3	30	17
4. If I had a concern about my child's progress at school, I would feel free to contact the counselor.	90	3	7
5. I would like to talk to the counselor about my child.	38	51	11
6. I feel there is a need for a counselor in the elementary school.	86	2	12
7. My child has been or would like to have been a member of a small counseling group this year.	47	23	30
8. I would like to know more about the service provided by the elementary school counselor.	28	60	12
9. I feel that the counseling services have been helpful to my child in some special way this year.	60	18	22
10. If my child had a special problem or concern about school or school related activities, I would encourage him to talk to the counselor.	92	3	5
11. I would like to see small groups established for parents discussing child raising concerns or problems.	86	14	0
12. Please state your feelings concerning the major strengths of the counseling program.			
13. Please state your feelings concerning the major weaknesses of the counseling program.			
14. How could the elementary counselor be of more help to you or to your child?			

Refer to written comments for questions 12, 13, 14.

Subjective Question 12 Please state your feelings concerning the major strengths of the counseling program. (continued)

"I imagine there are a number of times children feel the need to discuss a problem, and it's nice to know there is someone available to listen."

"There are times a child may be able to express himself better to a counselor than a parent. Some children are lacking of a parent or indifferent parents."

"True concern for each student is and remains your paramount concern."

"I think counseling is very important in the elementary years, especially in behavioral problems. They become acquainted with the counseling services, which are just as important if not more so in the Junior High."

"The major feelings of this counseling program is that when a child has problems in school there is always someone to look upon for help and advice."

"Our daughter was a part of a group of girls last fall that were upsetting each other and I think it made them aware of what they were doing to each other, and it seemed to help them a lot."

"Talking about feelings and how to express them. . . . Keep up the good work."

"I feel that children get to understand themselves and their own problems better."

"The children realized that their problems were shared by many others, particularly sibling rivalry, which alleviated some guilt feelings."

"The people running it. . . . Okay. . . . I am not familiar with the program."

"The program deals with "situations" before they become problems. It helps a child to see his relationship to others. It helps him to see that he can do something about his personality."

"I believe it gives the child a good feeling to be able to talk to a grown up about his problems. This way he doesn't have to keep his feelings all to himself."

"The fact that it exists and if students know of it they are made to feel that they can use it."

"I feel that Mr. Dolentz has helped my son in many ways, only because he has the training and most of all, the personality to handle this type of situation."

"This is the first I have been aware of such a program."

"I feel that most children feel they can tell or ask the counselor most anything."

"We think it is just great to have a school counselor."

"I like what it is doing for my children."

Subjective Question 12 Please state your feelings concerning the major strengths of the counseling program. (continued)

"Gives child feeling of someone to turn to in the school."

"The program is particularly good for children who have little guidance at home. I think the counselor makes them aware that someone does care about them."

"The counselor at W-K is doing a fine job."

"The counselor has helped me out with my child so very much. I can talk to him."

"As yet I have not been involved. I only know Mary Ellen knows and likes Mr. Dolentz."

"The strength is in giving a service when it is apparent that it is needed."

Subjective Question 13 Please state your feelings concerning the major weaknesses of the counseling program.

"I feel it is very weak in the area of parent-to-counselor, counselor-to-parent. Just what is expected of a first, second, or third grader?"

"Not enough time for all. . . . Aren't there too many students for one counselor?"

"Could use more than one person. . . . Am not aware of any weaknesses. . . . None."

"If parents are kept informed it can work along with child and counselor. I have had experiences where parents were not included. The results were very unsatisfactory for everyone."

"Unaware of any. . . . None that I know of. . . . Time. . . . Too little time. . . . Don't know."

"The major weaknesses of this program is that one counselor isn't enough. Every child should have their own counselor like in high school."

"I found my children worrying because they didn't have some of the problems which were discussed, (communication gap etc.). They worried about some things which had never bothered them before."

"As long as the counselor doesn't show any prejudices, this program should not have any weaknesses."

"If any child is a problem I think the counselor should inform the parents, stating he is working with their child."

"How much time is actually spent with children?"

"I do not feel this particular counselor has any weaknesses in his program."

"There is not enough individual counseling."

Subjective Question 13 Please state your feelings concerning the major weaknesses of the counseling program. (continued)

"Wonder if teachers might bring counselor into it when child has problems in classroom, often counselor could relate better here than parent, children don't often tell mom and dad when they've been having problems."

"I've heard the comment from several children that they are reluctant to discuss personal problems relating to their teachers because the counselor will not keep their confidences, the teachers, in turn, become vindictive to the child."

"Too many children for one person."

"As far as I know, there is one counselor at W-K. Is that enough? I would think that with so many children at W-K that one counselor would be swamped."

"The weakness is that I feel there is a tendency to create situations for counseling."

Subjective Question 14 How could the elementary school counselor be of more help to you or to your child?

"If a child has a problem in any area of the school program, I believe the counselor should see to it that there is either a program or material available for the child to get further help. Also, if a child has any problem in his behavior, I feel the parents should be notified in order for the school and home to try to help him correct the problem before it gets out of hand."

"He should include notes to the parents about the progress or problems of each child he talks to. He should feel free to contact parents at any time regardless how minor it may seem to be."

"By discussing child raising problems. . . . I don't know."

"I do not have any problems with my daughter now, but if I doo, would like to consult with him or her."

"I would hope the counselor would not hesitate to call me if he felt there was a problem to be discussed."

"If my child had problems and we, the counselor and I were both aware of them, I am sure that it would be easier to resolve with a combined opinion."

"You are doing a remarkable job. . . . He has really helped me this year."

"Our child does not look forward to the counselor's room visits and feels the subjects discussed should be more relevant. Our child also feels that the counselor is insulting at times."

"The counselor could be of more help to my child by talking to him of his school problem and help to me by explaining to our child about how parents feel about their child's school problems."

"Meeting with my child. . . . Parent groups. . . . Continuing with the program."

Subjective Question 14 How could the elementary school counselor be of more help to you or to your child. (continued)

"I was satisfied with the way our problem was handled."

"I would hope that I would be informed of any problem concerning one of my children."

"I really can't answer this . . . I assume he has been of help whenever a child needs it."

"Perhaps a canvass of parents to discover which problems they encounter most frequently and would like to have discussed with the children."

"Calling the parents when my kids get into trouble."

"I don't know how much help they are because I don't hear anything about them."

"By helping build her ego and self-confidence in small group counseling. I think Mr. Lehman and you are doing a good job in attempting to build school spirit and loyalty."

"By consulting the parents about the particular needs of the child. If there is a real problem, possibly the parents need counseling also."

"Accessibility, do feel an elementary counselor is of real need."

"I do believe that if a child has a problem, the counselor should feel free to call the parent and make the appointment to discuss the child's problem.

"Pick out trouble makers and work with them to find the cause of their behavior."

"I'm afraid I'm not really qualified to fill this out as my children have attended W-K for only a few months."

"If a child has problems in school, these should be discussed with the parents. By this I mean behavior problems or personality problems, so that the parents can help reinforce the counselor's corrective action."

"By calling me when my child has a problem at school."

"Not to look for or project, but rather just be available and let the call of need come from the child or parent. I feel that there are instances where a counselor cannot do justice or even help much even though there is a need of some kind of help. A counselor can make matters worse by projecting their analysis where perhaps it is not even a part of the problem. I think the big problem lies with parents, their understanding and concern and don't ask me how to educate the parents, to make them concerned and to care in an intelligent way. That is a problem and I feel the basic problem, and that is why I cannot say that a school counselor is the complete answer for the children. I feel a good counselor recognizes his limitations and stays within these boundaries."

A consensus of parent responses indicate a need in these areas:

a. Greater parental involvement in the education program.

b. Greater recognition of the special needs of the child.

c. Greater understanding of the parent's role in the education process.

d. Greater understanding of the child's total development.

Summary

Student

The student questionnaire responses indicated students feel free to talk to the counselor about personal problems and look forward to the developmental guidance presentations. Many students sought help in improving self-concept, peer relationships and academic work. Students asked for guidance in resolving teacher and/or parental conflicts.

An important factor pointed out by students, but difficult to resolve, is the schedule of time. Students wanted more time in the counselor's schedule for unscheduled self-referral problems and more exposure to small group counseling.

Teacher

There is a slight difference between the way special teachers and classroom teachers view the guidance program. Special teachers emphasized the need for more individual counseling and consultation. Classroom teachers wanted to continue with the developmental model but emphasized a need for more contact time with the counselor e.g., more classroom visits, individual counseling, and small group counseling.

The staff perceived the counselor as a sincere person they could and have related to. They saw the guidance program as a necessity rather than an "extra."

The evaluation emphasizes the importance of providing all the guidance and counseling services that time permits with stress on continuing classroom visits on a weekly basis.

Parent

Parents expressed the need of developing small discussion groups on child rearing concerns or problems. They felt free to contact the counselor with a concern and would encourage their child to do likewise.

The parents indicated they knew the elementary counselor and that the counselor's role was one of working with all children rather than remediation alone. Eighty-six per cent of the parents felt there is a need for a counselor in the elementary school and suggested greater parental involvement in the total education program.

APPENDIX A

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR'S JOB DESCRIPTION

We would like to present a description of our role as elementary school counselors based on our counseling experience, needs of our school and our professional training. The school counselor is responsible to building principal, who has been charged in his job description by the superintendent as being responsible for the counseling and guidance program and related services in the building.

Our goals of elementary school counseling are to work with all children in the identification and implementation of those innovations, functions, and procedures which facilitate learning and the development of a fully functioning person. More specifically these goals are: [1](Miller, 1966)

a. To assist the child in deriving positive personal meaning from learning.

b. To help the child to become more aware of his being and assist him in developing a positive attitude toward self.

c. To assist the child to develop a positive attitude toward life.

d. To help the child experience satisfaction from his relations with adults and other children.

e. To identify and communicate to parents facilitation attitudes and experiences which will enhance the child's success early in life (preschool) as well as sustained support during his school life.

f. To identify and communicate to teachers facilitation behavior which they may utilize to enhance the child's opportunity for success in the school setting.

g. To assist the child to develop competence with which he can cope with frustration and conflict in his personal-social life.

h. To help the child become aware of the place of values in life and to assist him in developing a system of his own but one which is compatible with a pluralistic society.

Dr. Gum[2] has added the following to the above:

i. To facilitate the child's understanding and acceptance of physical growth and development.

j. To enable the child to become sensitive to others and to value mankind.

k. To help the child to understand and to prize democratic values.

In order to facilitate these goals about 30 per cent of the counselor's time is spent in classrooms conducting group guidance activities, another 30 per cent doing individual and group counseling, the remaining 40 per cent is used for consultation and coordination activities.

Classroom Guidance

The group guidance activities are primarily developmental in nature. Our emphasis is preventive rather than remedial. We visit each classroom on a weekly basis for periods of twenty to thirty-five minutes discussing topics of concern to children. Every attempt is made to encourage children to express their feelings openly and honestly. It is our belief that when children learn to express their feelings they are taking a major step in learning to deal with them. Listed below are some of the topics that have been discussed:

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[1] Miller, G. Dean *A Suggested Demonstration Model for an Elementary Guidance Program Utilizing the Role of an Elementary Guidance Consultant.* In A. Grams *Facilitating Learning and Individual Development: Toward a Theory for Elementary Guidance*, Minnesota Department of Education, St. Paul, 1966, 212.

[2] Gum, Moy F. *The Elementary School Guidance Counselor: A Developmental Model*, Minnesota Department of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota, 1969, p. 21-11.

1. Developing and keeping friends
2. Getting along with siblings, age mates
3. Getting along with parents, teachers, and other adults
4. Learning to accept responsibilities
5. Feeling worthwhile, that you count for something
6. Adjusting to a new baby in the family
7. Discussing school work, study habits, report cards, and taking tests
8. Adjusting to divorce, death, or separation
9. Discussing school rules and the need for them
10. Understanding emotions such as fear, hate, anger, love, joy, sorrow, selfishness
11. Discussing truthfulness and honesty
12. Learning to handle name-calling and fights
13. Understanding both verbal and non-verbal communication
14. Dealing with tattletales and squeelers
15. Obeying parents
16. Similarities and differences of boys and girls in appearance
17. Getting back at others, revenge
18. Handling and meeting with everyday problems
19. Dealing with health, hunger, or tiredness
20. Getting attention
21. Intelligence, accepting one's abilities
22. Developing courage
23. Discussing justice and moral values
24. Building confidence and self-concept
25. Handling mistakes
26. Having interests and hobbies
27. Developing responsibility
28. Developing self-reliance
29. Learning to accept disappointments
30. Understanding physical changes of growing up

Counseling — Individual and Small Group

Our relationship with children in the classroom allows us to be more effective in working with children on an individual and small group basis.

Often we deal with the same concerns and problems that are discussed in the classroom, but on a more personal level. The needs of all children cannot be met through classroom guidance activities. Some children relate better on an individual or small group basis, yet many children can benefit from small group counseling. Time to carry on the small group counseling becomes a limiting factor in that it is not possible to allow every child who wants to become involved in small groups a chance to participate.

Referrals come to us from teachers, parents, principal, or some agency outside the school. Sometimes a child may refer himself if he has a problem he wants to discuss with the counselor. Once a child is referred we must decide if his needs can best be met through individual or small group counseling or some other supportive activity. Individual or small group counseling usually will require some type of consultation and coordination with school personnel and/or parents.

Consultation and Coordination

There are many duties that fall into the consultation and coordination category. Consultation is a process of sharing information and ideas about children and their needs as they relate to the school learning environment. Coordination is the method used to bring into focus the school's total effort in the child's behalf eliminating duplication of effort and initiating follow through and close relationships with personnel. In facilitating these activities we need to work very closely with the teachers, building principal, parents, school psychologist, social worker, school nurse, speech therapist, family doctor and other community agencies.

In carrying out these activities we consult with teachers concerning:

1. Needs of individual students
2. Classroom guidance activities
3. Parent conferences
4. New students and their adjustment
5. Individual or small group counseling
6. Cumulative records
7. Testing and test results
8. Classroom environment and seating arrangements
9. Modification of behavior
10. Physical or health needs of children
11. Home visits
12. Peer relationships
13. Developmental growth stages
14. Sociometric techniques
15. Grouping
16. Retention and promotion
17. Involvement in field trips

In addition to the above concerns we cooperate with principals in:

1. Preparing guidelines for the testing program that may be used system-wide

2. Facilitating placement of seventh graders
3. Facilitating class placement for the following year
4. Identifying children in need of special services (SID)
5. Keeping cumulative record up-to-date
6. Scheduling and guiding of volunteer tutors
7. Cooperating in kindergarten readiness program
8. Participating in curriculum change
9. Promoting school and student discipline

Consultation and coordination with school specialists and community resource people:

1. Planning and carrying out staffings
2. Assisting in carrying out recommendations of auxiliary personnel
3. Making referrals for children needing special services
4. Cooperating with Big Brother's program
5. Cooperating with welfare department personnel
6. Recommending children who may benefit from Camp Courage, Day Camp, or YMCA
7. Speaking to college classes about elementary school counseling
8. Being available to PTA groups wanting to know about elementary school counseling.
9. Gathering and exchanging information with headstart and nursery school
10. Working with the attendance officer

Cooperation and coordination with parents:

1. Encouraging a positive home-school relationship
2. Conducting parent conferences
3. Encouraging communication between home and school
4. Assisting in meeting special needs of children
5. Conducting home visits
6. Exchanging ideas concerning child growth and development
8. Interpreting test results to parents
9. Discussing physical needs of children — medical examination
10. Encouraging the establishment of parent groups

Other tasks:

1. Cumulative records
2. Note taking on individual and parent contacts
3. Cooperation with colleges in placement of students needing practicum experience in counselor education
4. Evaluation of counseling program

5. Selection of A-V materials with a guidance orientation that can be used system-wide
6. Follow through with children who transfer to another school
7. Keeping family records up-to-date
8. Carrying on public relations activities
9. Preparing guidance bulletins to parents and teachers
10. Preparing monthly guidance report

All other duties not specifically listed above may be assigned at the discretion of the superintendent, assistant superintendent for the elementary and building principal

APPENDIX B

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What do you think the counselor does?
2. How can a counselor help you?
3. What concerns or problems might you talk to the counselor about?

Circle Yes or No, ? is marked if you don't know.

Yes No ? 1. Do you feel good about yourself?

Yes No ? 2. Has the counselor met with you?

Yes No ? 3. Have you met with the counselor in a group?

Yes No ? 4. Can you feel free to talk to the counselor?

Yes No ? 5. Would you like to be in a small group with the counselor?

Yes No ? 6. Do you have a concern or problem that you would like to talk to the counselor about privately?

Yes No ? 7. Do you have friends at school?

Yes No ? 8. Do you feel free to talk to your parents about a concern or problem you may have?

Yes No ? 9. Have you tried to see the counselor this year with a concern or problem?

Yes No ? 10. Did you find the counselor to be too busy to be helpful when you needed help? (Answer only if you answered Yes to number 9).

APPENDIX C

FEEDBACK ON THE ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE PROGRAM IN OUR SCHOOL

I need to know how you see the elementary counseling and guidance program as conducted at W-K 1970-71 school year. I encourage you to critically evaluate the program by responding to these questions. If there is something that you would like to say that is not covered in the program, please feel free to use the back of the form.

If you would call a "spade a spade" I'd really appreciate it. I hope that you feel free enough to honestly answer both the subjective and objective questions. When you finish, please give this form to Charlene so that this questionnaire will be confidential to you. There is no need to write your name. I thank you for your time and consideration in completing this form.

Part A

The statements below may be rated one to five using the following scale:

1. Very satisfactory
2. Satisfactory
3. Somewhat satisfactory
4. Unsatisfactory
5. Don't know or not applicable

_____ 1. The elementary counselor demonstrated developmental guidance units in my classroom.

_____ 2. The elementary counselor has demonstrated understanding of children.

_____ 3. The elementary counselor is a sincere person with feelings that I have or can relate to.

_____ 4. Frequency of classroom visits or length of classroom presentations.

_____ 5. Flexibility and spontaneity in dealing with feelings and emotions raised by class members during his guidance presentation.

_____ 6. Willingness of the counselor to discuss individual problem cases or situations requiring remediation.

_____ 7. Competence of the counselor to offer helpful and constructive suggestions for dealing with problem situations.

_____ 8. Ease with which teachers can relate to the counselor at W-K. (e.g. raise problems, share feelings, plan activities).

_____ 9. The counselor encourages suggestions from the school staff members.

_____ 10. The school counselor is a person that I can discuss problems with.

_____ 11. The school counselor is competent to help both teachers and pupils.

_____ 12. The school counselor has dealt with problems and difficult situations with tact and diplomacy.

Part B

Check ( )

1. The counselor in this building talked to my class approximately _____ times.

2. In my room the counselor is working with

_____ a. individual cases _____ c. the whole class

_____ b. small group counseling _____ d. no one

3. I have worked with the counselor in consultation about

______ a. parent conferences

______ b. problem cases

______ c. choosing counseling groups

______ d. grouping (classroom)

______ e. behavior problems

______ f. classroom environment

______ g. sociometric of the classroom

______ h. referral cases

4. Identify the types of students with whom the counselor could assist you.

______ a. discipline problems

______ b. withdrawn or insecure students

______ c. gifted students

______ d. intellectually below average students

______ e. under achievers

______ f. referral cases

5. Check the techniques or procedures below which would be helpful to you.

______ a. classroom environment assessment

______ b. role playing techniques

______ c. conferences that we can use with parents and counselor

______ d. assessment of children's concerns

______ e. assessment of classroom learning climate

______ f. facilitation of referral services with principal, psychologist, social worker

______ g. home visits

______ h. classroom guidance presentations

______ i. assessment of classroom social relationships

______ j. group counseling

______ k. individual counseling

______ l. interpretation of tests

______ m. curriculum planning

Part C

1. Indicate positive and negative reactions to the counseling and guidance program.
2. Your opinion of the major strengths of the counseling guidance program at W-K.
3. Your listing of major weaknesses.
4. Suggested improvements for next year.
5. Your general reaction to this year's counseling and guidance program.
6. Other comments.

Thank you for taking time to fill this long questionnaire out. I hope you have given feedback as you see the program.
Jerry

APPENDIX D

PARENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

CONCERNING THE ELEMENTARY COUNSELING PROGRAM

Yes No Don't know

— — — 1. My child talks about the school counselor at home.

— — — 2. I know who the counselor is at W-K School.

— — — 3. The elementary school counselor tends to help only problem children.

— — — 4. If I had a concern about my child's progress at school, I would feel free to contact the counselor.

— — — 5. I would like to talk to the counselor about my child.

— — — 6. I feel there is a need for a counselor in the elementary school.

— — — 7. My child has been or would like to have been a member of a small counseling group this year.

— — — 8. I would like to know more about the service provided by the elementary school counselor.

— — — 9. I feel that the counseling services have been helpful to my child in some special way this year.

— — — 10. If my child had a special problem or concern about school or school related activities, I would encourage him to talk to the counselor.

— — — 11. I would like to see small groups established for parents discussing child raising concerns or problems.

12. Please state your feelings concerning the major strengths of the counseling program.

13. Please state your feelings concerning the major weaknesses of the counseling program.

14. How could the elementary counselor be of more help to you or to your child?

MINNESOTA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE RESEARCH: AN OVERVIEW

G. Dean Miller

Background

A brief examination of the background of elementary school guidance in Minnesota is necessary in order to better understand how the research activities fit in with the overall development of the movement within the state. The elementary school guidance movement is a relatively new phenomenon and there is a trend toward schools assuming greater local support in Minnesota (Miller, 1972) and elsewhere (Van Hoose & Kurtz, 1970; and Van Hoose & Carlson, 1972). Theoretical conceptualizations, model building, and experimentation have taken place largely under the auspices of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) which was expanded in August, 1964, to include elementary guidance programs and more recently under Title I and Title III of the elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

An assessment of educational needs in the state, sponsored by the Divisoin of Planning and Development in the Minnesota Department of Education, was conducted by the Bureau of Field Services of the University of Minnesota (1970). Superintendents, principals, school boards and teachers were surveyed in the 444 school districts and the major needs in five areas were identified, including pupil personnel services. The results were summarized by the eleven planning regions in the state. Elementary teachers in *all of the eleven regions identified elementary school counseling as the number one or number two greatest need in pupil services.* Even high school teachers agreed with the elementary counseling need, rating it by region as the one, two, or three greatest need. Elementary principals in eight of the eleven regions rated it as number one or number two greatest need in services. The need for elementary school counselors was also indicated in three earlier Minnesota Department of Education studies of school needs in the state (Domian, 1967; Joselyn, 1967; and Minnesota Department of Education, 1969). The Minnesota Congress of Parents and Teachers also identified such a need in 1966 and recommended that elementary school guidance be expanded in the state.

Minnesota has followed a long-range plan in attempting to build a sound foundation to provide direction to the movement of elementary guidance in general and the role of the elementary counselor-consultant in particular. State study committees have ment and submitted reports to the Advisory Committee on Guidance, Counseling and Testing (1964). Three publications sponsored by the Minnesota Department of Education have been printed and distributed to the schools. The first publication (Grams, 1966) was an effort to examine a general direction for elementary guidance. The view espoused was that elementary guidance is an organized effort within the school to facilitate individual growth and development. The second publication (Miller, 1966) is contained in the first volume and deals with making the general theory operational through a suggested demonstration model utilizing the role of an elementary school guidance consultant.

The third publication (Gum, 1969a) described the preparation of the elementary counselor-consultant. An earlier version of the preparation model was the basis upon which the two University of Minnesota, Duluth, elementary school counselor NDEA Institutes were planned and funded by the U. S. Office of Education.

After the theoretical framework was conpleted, it was then appropriate to make the model operational. NDEA funds were made available to a small number of schools in Minnesota interested in a three-year demonstration project. Interested schools submitted proposals to the Minnesota Department of Education for consideration. There were eleven demonstration projects being sponsored with these federal funds. Each participating school provided some local support toward the project ranging from 10 percent to 25 percent Schools were encouraged to follow a developmental mode. Three additional schools funded elementary guidance projects through funds made available under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 (ESEA).

The recommended model contained both remedial and developmental components; however, the main thrust was that of facilitating growth and development.

> . . . the purpose of guidance becomes the development of competence, a sufficiency for living, by utilizing the process of education as a means to this end. The development of this process is facilitated by guidance; the skills, abilities, appreciations, knowledges, attitudes, etc., are seen as the raw material which the individual may utilize in the course of an interdependent contributive self-actualizing life in society (Grams, 1966, p. 14).

> . . . the elementary counselor is not "crisis oriented"
> . . . A major emphasis will be to assist parents and teachers

> to more effectively facilitate cognitive and affective development. . . Developmental facilitation implies that the elementary guidance counselor will be primarily responsible for coordinating and facilitating the development of and all times leading the discussion of regularly schedules sessions with groups of children on such topics as peer relations, physical growth, sex education, teacher-pupil relations, the meaning and purpose of pupil evaluation, mental health aspects, dealing with adults, problems in learning, attitudes toward self and others, and learning attitudes . . . consultation is to be carried on with parents and teachers, either individually or in groups (Gum, 1969a, pp. 29-31).

"Emphasis here is upon facilitating the learning and self-actualization of all children rather than focusing upon problem solving or remedial measures for the few" (Miller, 1966, p. 215).

The theoretical demonstration model suggested functions the counselor-consultant might perform in implementing a developmentally oriented role. Of the sixteen functions suggested, twelve are concerned with working with teachers, parents and the principal. The emphasis is clearly upon consulting with significant adults and working developmentally with all pupils. The following examples are illustrative of suggested counselor functions.

> Assist parents and teachers in developing further understanding that after desirable learning and personal adequacy can be fostered, proper nutrition, sanitation, disease prevention, medical care, safety, belongingness and love and esteem needs of the individual must be served.
>
> Assist teachers to operate from a facilitative, what-can-we-do attitude to stimulate human development with all individuals.
>
> Cooperate with the principal in identifying and establishing the "ideal" climate of the school—the constant search for ways of expressing the "I care" attitude toward each child in the group—getting to know the students rather than just knowing about them (Miller, 1966, pp. 215-216).

If the elementary school counselor is consulting with teachers, and he is effective as a person in this role, he should be perceived by teachers as an accepting, warm and understanding individual (Gum, 1969a). A counselor who does not spend time with teachers and is not understanding is not likely to be perceived by them as being helpful. The consulting role is, therefore, an important guidance input process variable which may be a function of how the elementary counselor spends his time.

A comprehensive two-year evaluation of the demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, and Bender, 1972) sought to examine elementary counselor functions as an index to model implementation through analyses of function *purposes, types* of functions, and counselor *effort* variables plus the relationship between counselor functions and important pupil-staff-parent guidance outcome variables. Interrelationships among pupil-staff-parent variables were also examined.

The study was concerned, then, with three general areas: 1) The nature of the guidance model which was actually implemented in the schools; that is; *developmental, remedial,* or a *combination of remedial* and *developmental;* 2) Differential effectiveness of counselor role upon various guidance outcome variables as related to (a) function *purposes,* (b) *type* of function, and (c) counselor *effort* variables; and 3) The nature and extent of relationships among important pupil-staff-parent guidance outcome variables.

In addition to a study of the fourteen demonstration projects described above, state efforts was also directed toward more controlled studies, most of which are described in this publication; other studies are underway and will be reported later. It is appropriate to examine the findings of the fourteen demonstration projects and the more controlled studies described herein and attempt to integrate the results in a meaningful manner in an effort to determine the accountability demonstrated at this point in Minnesota's elementary school guidance movement.

The results of the various studies will be examined around the three target groups elementary school counselors serve: children, teachers and parents. The school is organized primarily to serve developmental needs of children and naturally most of the studies to date have focused upon them; however, it has been found that the relationships between children and teachers, as well as children and their parents, are related in important ways to pupil personal-social-academic variables. In other words, in facilitating pupil growth and development, it is important not only to work directly with children but indirectly with significant others (parents and teachers) who influence what happens in the life of the child. In addition to examining the Minnesota studies involving the three target groups (pupils, teachers and counselors) a final area will be reviewed—the nature of the role model implemented in the school and its relationship to selected pupil-teacher-parent outcome variables.

Self-Concept

The importance of how one perceives himself has been studied rather extensively, especially in relation to school achievement and adjustment. Our evaluation of the fourteen NDEA-Title I demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, and Bender, 1972), which included a study of the interrelationships among pupil personal-social-academic variables, revealed that a number of the self-concept measures were significantly related to teachers' rating of pupil academic achievement in five areas (reading, mathematics, English, social studies and science). Self-concept measures also significantly related to achievement were real and ideal self-concept, discrepancy between real and ideal self concept (negative) and academic self-concept. These findings that how one sees himself or herself is related in a significant way to how well one does his school work, are similar to the results of other studies (Coopersmith, 1959; Combs & Soper, 1963; Bledsoe, 1963; Brookover, Peterson & Shaller, 1962; Hamachek, 1960; and Wattenberg & Clifford, 1964).

A second analysis of our fourteen demonstration projects involved a comparison of the second year pupil personal-social-academic data with first year scores. There were no significant increases in the several self-concept measures the second year; however, in a major analysis which involved the use of multiple stepwise backward regression, it was found that how counselors spent their time across various function *purposes*, as well as *type* of function performed, plus distribution of counselor *effort*, produced important information about counselor impact on self-concept measures. Only those significant combinations with the fewer number of variables, accounting for a large share of the criterion variance, will be reviewed. (The other significant predictor combinations are contained in the full report). High counselor time spent in placement and testing, low time in individual and group counseling, low time in consulting and in-service activities, and performing many functions were significant predictors of pupil academic self-concept. This combination (.82 correlation) accounted for 67 percent of criterion variance. High counselor time spent on placement and testing was a significant single predictor of real self-concept and accounted for 39 percent of criterion variance (.71 correlation). High counselor time spent on both remedial and facilitative purposes with pupils present, plus working full days, was a significant predictor combination of pupil ideal self-concept. High counselor time spent in individual and group counseling, high time in placement and testing, plus performing many functions, was the significant combination which predicted pupil ideal self-concept (.80 correlation) and accounted for the most criterion variance (64 percent). There was no significant predictor combination for the important real-ideal self-concept discrepancy score. Impact upon the self-concept measures seems to have been, with some exception, a function of counselor time spent more in remedial type activities or serving both remedial and developmental purposes.

It was felt that the early group of counselors who participated in the demonstration projects were somewhat handicapped in serving self-concept needs since perhaps with the exception of the Ojemann (1967) material, there was very little available to work with children in the classrooms in a developmental way. It was decided as materials became available, further research should be conducted to evaluate them. It was further decided that an important contribution to the field of elementary school guidance might be the actual development of classroom guidance materials and so both NDEA Institutes conducted at the University of Minnesota, Duluth (UMD), for elementary school counselors spent part of the time in developing and field testing short units (Gum, 1969b).

The study by Darrigrand and Gum was contracted to study the effects of the UMD materials and the Bessell and Palomares' *Human Development Program* (1969) on self-concept, peer relationships, and school attitudes of second grade children. Only the self-concept results will be considered here; the other two outcomes are discussed elsewhere (pp 63).

It will be recalled that one experimental group was exposed to the UMD materials for approxiately twenty minutes each school day for fifty sessions; a second experimental group was exposed to the Bessell and Palomares material for twenty minutes a day for fifty sessions; and a third group was exposed to the UMD materials for only twenty-five sessions. A fourth group served as a control. The results indicated that both types of classroom material used by an elementary school counselor were effective in improving self-concept discrepancy scores of second grade children (including the lesser number of sessions with the UMD material) over the control group. The results reinforce the findings of other studies (Martin, 1959; Ojemann, 1946, 1956; and Slobetz, 1955) as pointed out by Darrigrand and Gum that self-concept can be enhanced through accepting others, self-introspection, self-description, dramatization, and peer evaluation.

The study by Pardew and Schilson was contracted to study the effects of a self-concept enhancement program on preschool children. The program was built upon activities and units carefully selected for four-year olds from the following sources: *Focus on Self-Development, Stage One: Awareness* (Anderson, Lang and Scott, 1970), *Developing an Understanding of Self and Others - DUSO* (Dinkmeyer, 1970), and Scholastic/Kindle Sound Filmstrips for Early Childhood Education: *Who Am I? - The Concept of Self,* and *How Do I Learn? - Concept of Learning* (Corini and Callas, 1971). Three sessions were conducted three times a week over an eleven week period for a total of thirty-three sessions. The sessions were twenty to thirty minutes in length.

An experimental group exposed to the treatment was compared to a control group on twenty-five self-concept scales derived by combining nineteen scales from *Thomas Self-concept Value Test* and the six scales from Bessell and Palomares' adaption of the *Fels Rating Scales.* The Thomas self-concept scale was administered individually and Bessell's and Palomares' *Developmental Profile* was completed by the teachers. Pretest and post-test comparisions revealed that the experimental group made significantly more gains over the control group on the self-concept scales. Experimentals gained significantly on fourteen scales while controls gained on three.

Miller and Das (1973) studied the effects of three Cloquet teachers at the second grade level working to make an influence on understanding of self and others. Two public school teachers were encouraged by the counselor to use DUSO materials; however, one of the teachers devoted time to only ten sessions while the other teacher presented DUSO two times a week for ten weeks or 20 sessions. A third teacher taught in a parochial school and developed her own approach which she presented four times a week for ten weeks or 40 sessions. She used role playing, class meetings, stories, and a book on character education (Sadlier New Life Series). She previously had workshop experience relative to value clarification and Glasser's class meetings. The children under this teacher made significant gains (.05 level) on *Rusch Affectively Scale* (based on DUSO) over the other groups including a control group. It appears important that to be effective with human relations materal teachers need to be committed to this area of curriculum and/or have some background in how to present it. It is not clear in the study by Eldridge, Barcikowski, & Witmer (1973) just how committed the teachers were who were selected although the units were presented in a concentrated fashion similar to the successful teacher in this study but over a shorter period of time.

Campion (1973) as part of an evaluation of the effectiveness of the Osseo elementary school interns from the University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, included among other outcome variables the study of pupil understanding of self and others. Twenty-four 30-minutes sessions of the DUSO beginning classroom guidance materials were used by her with first graders in combination with other materials. The *Affectivity Scale* based upon DUSO concepts was used to compare an experimental group exposed to the DUSO with a control group. The experimental group showed a significant gain while the control group did not in a comparison of total scores on the understanding of self and others instrument.

Howell (1972) working with a group of Minnesota children in Winona with learning difficulties conducted fifty, 30-minute sessions using the UMD developmental guidance classroom materials. Comparisons were made with a control group. A .91 correlation was reported for the experimental group between self-concept gain scores and standardized achievement test gain scores. The control group showed a low correlation (—.26) between the same two variables.

Peer Relationships

How a child is accepted by his peers has been found to be related to academic ability (Schmuck, 1962), achievement (Sears, 1963) and a child's positive or negative functioning in the classroom group (Lippitt and Gold, 1959). The counselor, like the teacher, is interested in promoting relationships in the classroom which bear upon pupil achievement and adjustment.

In the Minnesota study of the fourteen demonstration projects, pupil social status was also examined (Miller, Gum, and Bender, 1972). A significant positive correlation was found both years between social status and achievement, which supports the findings of the studies mentioned above. In a comparison of second grade children's peer social status one year later when in third grade, it was found that peer status decreased. The use of regression analysis revealed that counselor influence on this variable was related to how he spent his time and effort. In selecting only those significant predictor combinations which accounted for the largest amount of criterion variance, it was revealed that high average time per function, low total working time, and low number of functions plus low time with pupils for developmental purposes predicted this guidance outcome.

High counselor time spent on combination remedial and developmental purposes combined with the same counselor effort variables cited in the above combination formed another significant predictor. Low time with teachers for remedial purposes combining again with the same set of counselor effort variables above yielded still another combination of predictors. Low counselor time on consulting and in-service, low time on placement and testing, low total working time, high average time per function, low number of functions performed, and high time on developmental guidance correlated .90 with the criterion and accounted for 81 percent of the criterion variance. The emphasis here appears to be away from a remedial or developmental orientation and toward a combination of remedial and developmental orientation.

Another phase of the demonstration projects research was the use of the counselor in a structured way in group counseling with 43 children with the lowest peer social status when they were in the second grade. Four low status children were placed in counseling groups for ten to twelve sessions with two high status children who served as models and provided feedback to the low status children on the consequences of their school behaviors as well as guidelines for improved social conduct. These counseled children with low peer status showed significant gains one year later in social status. This is especially interesting when it was noted that the children in general decreased significantly in peer status. It appears that children, as they grow older, become more selective in whom they choose and, therefore, tend to be less accepting of those outside their immediate circle of friends (Barclay, 1966; Phillips, Shenker and Reirtz, 1951; Ziller and Behringer, 1961; and Proshansky and Newton, 1968). Thus, a developmental need is clearly indicated.

The group counseling activity indicates that such a trend can be broken through planned intervention so that pupils with few social skills and less desirable qualities can be helped. In fact, the study by Barclay (1967), the one by Halpin et al. (1972) using Bessell and Palomares material and one by Gordon, Blozan and Dienmann (1972) using counseling and support programs all demonstrate such a notion.

It was felt that counselors with more training and properly developed materials, spending more time on such a specfic need with the children in the classroom on a regular basis, could make greater impact on this important aspect of child growth and development. As part of the research design of the Darrigrand and Gum study, children in all groups were asked to express their liking for classmates before and after the presentation of the UMD classroom guidance material or the Bessell and Palomares material. It may be recalled that two groups received fifty sessions of either the UMD material or the Bessell and Palomares material, one group was exposed to twenty-five sessions of the UMD material and a fourth group was a control. All experimental groups increased significantly in liking for other children in general and in all experimental groups, boys increased more in liking for opposite sex than girls in liking for opposite sex.

In the Hammerschmidt and Smaby study, UMD materials were selected which were primarily based on three developmental tasks enunciated by Havighurst: "learning to get along with age mates"; "developing concepts necessary for everyday living"; and "developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions." One experimental group of fourth graders was exposed to sixteen sessions and a second group was exposed to eight. The sessions were conducted on a regular basis, two times per week for group one, once a week for group two and a third group which received no such experience was used as a control. The sessions ran approximately thirty minutes each time. The results indicate that peer social relationships increased significantly in the experimental group which was exposed to eight classroom guidance sessions over the control group. The experimental group exposed to sixteen sessions did not show similar gains possibly due to the explanation that this group started out with much higher "liking by others" scores and thus perhaps the instrument had little ceiling or sensitivity left to measure increase. It was also observed that the changed group's regular teacher tended to model accepting behavior toward children with a wide variety of behaviors. The results of all of these studies do demonstrate that acceptance of others can be improved through planned classroom interventions.

Academic Achievement

A primary purpose of the school is to facilitate cognitive learning in children. The teacher's ability to rate pupils' acievement has been rather well documented and discussed by Sears (1963). In the study of our fourteen demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) one overriding observation is that all eight personal-social variables were significantly related to academic achievement as rated by the teachers in the five academic areas (science, reading, mathematics, English, and social studies). The personal-social variables significantly related to academic achievement include the following: academic self-concept (the highest .42), social status, locus of control, ideal and real self-concepts, discrepancy scores (negative), school anxiety (negative), and the lie score (from the test anxiety instrument). Except for the discrepancy score this relationship showed up with all variables both years in the study.

A second analysis made of achievement with the fourteen demonstration projects included first and second year comparisons of mean achievement scores. The mean score of 2.54 (on a five point scale) the first year increased to 2.56 the second but it was not significant.

A third analysis in the two-year study of the demonstration projects included regression analysis to determine if academic achievement might be predictable by some combination of counselor time and effort spent across various functions and/or purposes. This analysis did not reveal any such significant combination of predictors; however, it must be kept in mind that all eight of the other personal-social variables as mentioned earlier were significantly related to achievement. It is argued that because of this linkage of the personal-social qualities to achievement a counselor role which focuses upon the affective domain seems supported. It also confirms the dialectic between the cognitive and affective-domain (Grams, 1966, Gum, 1969a).

Stuart (1973) found as part of a Title III project evaluation of coordinated counseling of siblings with learning and/or adjustment problems that attendance improved and achievement test scores increased slightly at all elementary target grades (3, 4, 5, 6); however, at the fourth grade level the average increase was 1.1 grade equivalent in both mathematics and reading.

The Fridley preschool Title III clinic, corrdinated by Larson (1973), shows high promise of identifying pupil qualities at age four which correlate significantly with later school success or failure. The preschool clinic tests (verbal, visual-motor, and draw-a-picture) correlated significantly with the following outcome variables: Metropolitan Reading readiness (kindergarten); first and second grade teachers' pupil ratings; and Gates-McGinitie Reading test scores at beginning of second grade. The only one corelation out of 19 which did not correlate significantly was the draw-a-picture with teachers' rating of pupil (kindergarten); however, it did correlate significantly with Metropolitan Reading readiness and first grade teachers' ratings. Many of the individual referrals were, after treatment, dramatic successes compared to what might have happened since parents often were unaware of their child's special needs. Other aspects of this project are being analyzed and will be reported later.

Stormer (1967) after group counseling with elementary children, teacher group discussions, and parent group discussions found results similar to our demonstration projects (reduction in pupil anxiety, increased self-reliance, etc.) with no significant change in achievement; however, he pointed out that important personal-social variables must change first, improvement in grades happens later. Wirt (1970) in another Minnesota Title III study at St. Louis Park reported important achievement increases of junior high underachievers whose parents participated in discussion groups led by counselors and social workers. Penn (1972) found similar achievement results in working through teachers and parents. It will be recalled that Howell (1972) working with a small group of Minnesota children with learning disabilities using the UMD classroom guidance materials found a .91 corelation between standardized achievement test gain scores and self-concept gain scores whereas a control group showed no such relationship (—.26). Kaczkowski (1971) in the Illinois evaluation of demonstration projects found teachers reporting improved academic performance as well as reduction in disturbing behavior of counseled pupils even though counselor emphasis was upon adaptive school skills rather than subject skills.

Pupil School Anxiety

It has been pointed out that the school is often an environment which is a source of anxiety which inhibits the learning process (Sarason et al., 1960). Anxiety may be the result of fear of failure, testing activities, parental and/or teacher expectation levels, fear of doing poorly in front of peers and other related situations. It is reasoned that it is a proper function of the counselor to concern himself with reducing any classroom situation which fosters inhibiting anxiety. It is felt that if the counselor develops a helping relationship with the classroom teachers he will be in position, either working directly with pupils in the classroom or indirectly by consulting with teachers, to reduce crippling anxiety in school.

In the evaluation of the fourteen demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) second year anxiety scores were compared to the first year scores. School anxiety of pupils decreased significantly the second year. It is also interesting that anxiety was negatively correlated with achievement and locus of control. In other words, those with high anxiety tend to be those with lower achievement and feeling less able to influence their way of life and vice versa. This relationship of anxiety to achievement is similar to other findings (Sarason et al., 1960).

In the analysis of counselor time spent on various functions and activities there was no significant combination of predictors of school anxiety, however, the second year of the demonstration projects counselors were more developmentally oriented (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972, pp. 180-183, 211-212).

In a recent comprehensive review of the problem of anxiety in children and its relation to school (Phillips, 1971), it was pointed out that where anxiety is the result of psychological stress within the school, interaction strategies must be used to accommodate more individuals than through a remedial approach which serves only a few. Prevention strategies which provide psychological consultation for the classroom teacher were stressed much in the same way as the developmental guidance model espoused here.

Locus of Control

Children who feel they can have some influence upon their environment possess more positive attitudes toward life and are better able to utilize opportunities and overcome obstacles than those who feel helpless in a world viewed as controlled by others or in circumstances beyond their control. Counselors as part of their role orientation should expend energy in performing functions which facilitate the development of confidence in children to control their environment.

The importance of the feeling of influencing one's own life can be seen by noting the number of other personal-school variables which in the evaluation of the fourteen demonstration projects were significantly correlated both years to this factor (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972, p. 155). Locus of control was significantly related to pupils' real and ideal self-concepts, academic achievement, and negatively the second year to school anxiety. As hoped for, the relationship improved the second year. These findings are consistent with previous studies (Bialer, 1961 and Miller, 1960) and reaffirms the need for counselors, teachers, and others to be concerned about locus of control feelings in children.

In the first and second year comparisons or pupils' locus of control scores it was revealed that pupils in general in the study made significant gains in feeling that they could influence events in their life. High scores on this quality did not show up as a function of how counselors spent their time across various function purposes, types of functions or distribution of counselor effort variables although in general the project counselors were more developmentally oriented the second year of the two-year study (pp. 211-212).

Several other references are worth noting in regard to promoting this quality. Brown and Brown (1972) present an organized approach to promoting self-management and increasing one's influence. Krumboltz and Thorsen (1969) in their book on behavioral counseling offer techniques which relate to increasing one's self-directed behavior in a wide variety of situations.

De Charms (1968) reported on a laboratory experiment conducted to determine the relationship between leadership compliance of a teacher type and group behavior of students. In the study when a student attempted to change the course of events by direct influence upon the teacher, compliance by the teacher communicated to the student that he can initiate behavior to change the situation or exercise some control rather than merely respond to teacher demands. Responding to student requests appeared to be associated more with positive feelings toward the leader and willingness to work for him than if they had no say about procedures. Perhaps teachers in the demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) benefited from consultations with the counselor and thus were better able to respond positively to pupil requests. There is some support for this notion from the significant increase in teacher openness (p. 143) and the inclusion of high counselor time spent in consulting activities as one predictor variable of staff openness (p. 142).

Pupil Perception of Counselor Helpfulness

A counselor who is effective with children must be perceived by them as helpful. Such a notion was demonstrated by Barrett-Lennard (1962) who found that therapists judged to be effective obtain high scores, and that high scores are predictive of change in therapy. High scores furthermore indicate a counselor is perceived as warm, accepting, understanding, with unconditional positive regard for the client. In other words, clients who make progress in therapy perceive their counselors as possessing more of certain helpfulness qualities than clients who make fewer gains in therapy. In the two-year study of counselors in the demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) it was speculated that counselors would be perceived by pupils as possessing more of these qualities the second year and, further, that pupil perception of counselor helpfulness might be a function of how counselors spent their time on various activities and functions.

The hope that pupils the second year would increase their perception of counselor helpfulness was not revealed in the analysis of first and second year scores. In fact, they viewed counselors as possessing fewer of these qualities the second year. On the other hand, in analyzing counselor time across various functions and guidance activities through regression analysis it was revealed that it was possible in 18 out of 21 combinations analyzed the second year to predict pupil perception of counselor helpfulness.

In examining the pattern of types of functions included in these predictor combinations it is obvious that the more remedial oriented role is apparently associated with this outcome variable (high time on counseling, placement and testing) and low time on purely developmental functions (serving developmental purposes). Serving *combination* remedial and developmental purposes with pupils present, high number of functions performed, and low time spent per function was a combination of significant predictors which correlated .89 with the criterion and accounted for 79 per cent of the criterion variance.

It appears that counselors who spend high time on purely developmental activities are not perceived by pupils as possessing helpfulness qualities. It may be that the nature of developmental guidance activities (classroom guidance, orientation, consulting with teachers, parents, etc.) is such that children have limited direct contact with the counselor compared to those who might experience a deeper relationship in counseling. For example, when the counselor served more in a clinical role pupils perceived more of the helpfulness qualities which is quite similar to the counselors with whom the original Barrett-Lennard instrument was used. It is interesting that high school students also perceived counselor helpfulness in relation to the more remedial oriented guidance activities in another Minnesota guidance study (Tamminen and Miller, 1968). Scheuer (1971) in a more recent study using another modification of the same instrument found emotionally disturbed pupils' perception of the teacher's interpersonal qualities to be significantly related in a positive way to pupils' achievement gain. This points up again that important perceived helpfulness qualities appear to be associated with a remedial role model. It would be worth experimenting to see if these perceptions would change if the time for developmental classroom guidance were increased significantly.

Dolentz in his survey of pupil reaction to the work of the counselor found that the majority felt free to talk with him, but at times (28 per cent) found he was too busy (another 23 per cent weren't sure) to be helpful when the need arose. A large group (85 per cent) were interested in small discussion groups although almost all (91 per cent) had experience with the counselor in individual counseling or classroom guidance activities.

WORKING WITH TEACHERS

The various writing sponsored by the Minnesota Department of Education all seemed to stress the importance of the counselor working with the teacher in facilitating the learning process (Grams, 1966; Miller, 1966; and Gum, 1969a). In evaluating the fourteen demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) considerable effort was expended in determining whether or not counselors were in fact helpful in this regard. In this section, selected results of the two-year evaluation activities will be reviewed plus the highlights of other similar outcome measures with subsequent research in Minnesota.

Teachers' Perception of Counselor Helpfulness

One of the major orientations to the elementary school counselor's role is that of serving as a consultant to teachers, and counselors effective in this regard should display important helpfulness qualities being successful in gaining teachers' trust and confidence. It was also reasoned that teachers' perception of counselor helpfulness might be a function of how counselors spend time across various guidance purposes, types of functions, and counselor effort variables.

Predicting teachers' perception of counselor helpfulness was possible with one set of significant predictors which correlated .81 with the criterion and accounted for 66 per cent of the criterion variance. The predictor variables included: low time with teachers present for facilitative purposes, low average time per function, low time with teachers for remedial purposes plus high time with teachers for combination remedial and developmental purposes. In other words, a problem identified by the teacher or counselor might serve as a starting point, however, it would be combined with a developmental purpose (with teachers present) before it was part of a significant combination of predictors of this variable. For example, a group might have one or two pupils who have no real friends (a remedial purpose). This would be the starting point for the counselor who might come to the classroom to lead a class discussion on how to establish and maintain friendships (a developmental purpose). These same counselors spent about 19-24 minutes per function. Little time was spent by these counselors on functions which were strictly remedial or developmental in nature.

Teachers in general decreased their perception of counselor helpfulness the second year. It was speculated that counselor consultations with the teachers might have produced too much risk through increased demands upon teacher instruction time thus increasing teacher resistance, especially since helpfulness was frequently linked with low average time per function. It is also possible that teachers at this point do not consider a purely developmental approach relevant. It is only when a specific remedial need has been identified and served under developmental circumstances when all children might benefit that teachers perceive counselor helpfulness. Actually, on reflection this is not an entirely undesirable condition. Is it not appropriate that teachers be sensitive and responsive to need? Apparently counselors presenting developmental guidance on the basis of child development literature is not enough. It appears that such needs must be confirmed in the local school before it is felt that time should be devoted to serving perceived needs (Mease & Benson, 1973). Others, too, have stressed the importance of counselors working with significant others in the classroom — peers and teachers (Barclay, 1966; Gum, 1969a; and Patterson et al., 1969), however, it is still important that the significant other must first understand and accept that such needs do in fact exist and deserve attention.

Dolentz in his Winona study of teachers' perception of counselor helpfulness collected data on all of the 23 teachers in his building. The teachers' ratings were extremely positive in regard to interpersonal qualities of the counselor and most of them viewed the following activities as satisfactory or very satisfactory: developmental classroom guidance activities, counselor understanding of children, and competent to work both with teachers and children. Many of the teachers felt that more counselor effort should be directed toward discipline problems, pupil maladjustment (withdrawn behavior), the slower learner, classroom guidance presentations, test interpretation, referrals, assessment of pupil concerns, parent conferences, home visits and individual and group counseling. It is apparent that while teachers rate developmental activities high they also want remedial needs met; again, the bimodal model of remedial *and* developmental is stressed by teachers.

Staff Perception of Appropriateness of Guidance Functions

Besides examining teachers' perception of counselor helpfulness in the two-year evaluation of the demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972), other aspects of teachers' response to the guidance program were also studied. Teachers were asked to rate a selected list of fifteen guidance functions which a counselor might perform if he were trying to implement a developmentally oriented model.

The intercorrelation matrix revealed there was a significant relationship both years between staff perception of appropriateness of guidance functions and staff perception of counselor helpfulness; there was also a significant relationship between appropriateness and staff openness to the counselor. While there was a significant relationship between staff perception of appropriateness of guidance functions and perception of achievement of the functions and perception of helpfulness of the guidance functions, the size of the relationship was greater the second year, .38 to .51 and .33 to .45 respectively.

In eight of the selected guidance functions 11 out of 16 first and second year comparisons were significantly related to the teachers' openness to the counselor. This seems to suggest that teachers are more apt to be responsive to counselors when counselor functions are viewed as more relevant by teachers themselves.

Staff in general perceived the guidance function as appropriate both years with a mean rating of 4.07 and 4.14 respectively out of a possible 5 points. Although the change the second year was in the desired direction it did not reach significance.

In the analysis of counselor time across various guidance function purposes, types of functions, and counselor effort variables it was possible to predict this outcome variable from 15 combinations of significant predictors. The following predictor combination correlated .84 with the criterion and accounted for the most criterion variance (71 per cent): high time in consulting and in-service, high time on individual and group counseling, high time on placement and testing, low average time per function, and working a full day. In examining this set and other sets of significant predictors it is obvious that influence on staff perception of appropriateness of guidance functions is associated with counselors who spent considerable time on both facilitative purposes and remedial purposes, performed a lot of functions, and put in a full working day.

Staff Perception of the Achievement of Guidance Functions

One way of assessing whether or not the guidance functions were achieved is by asking those who are in a position to observe, especially the teachers who comprise an important subtarget population served by counselors (Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972). Both years it was perceived that the guidance functions were achieved more than they were not achieved although the mean scores were not quite as high as the appropriateness mean scores. The mean achievement scores did improve the second year but did not reach significance.

The intercorrelations between openness to the counselor and achievement of eight selected guidance functions indicates significant relationships for all eight comparisons both years, the highest being .45 the first year between openness to the counselor and the function to "identify and refer children to specialist." Six out of the eight highest correlations occurred the first year ranging from .42 to .45.

Staff perception of achievement of guidance functions was significantly related both years to staff openness to the counselor, staff perception of counselor helpfulness, staff perception of appropriateness of guidance functions, and staff perception of helpfulness of the guidance functions. The highest correlation was between achievement and helpfulness of the guidance functions (.86 and .88 first and second year respectively).

The multiple stepwise regression analysis yielded twelve significant combinations of predictors of this guidance outcome variable, staff perception of achievement of guidance functions. One of the largest amount of criterion variance (69 per cent) was accounted for by high counselor time spent for facilitative purposes, high time for combination remedial and developmental purposes, low time for remedial purposes plus low average time per function. Another combination correlated .83 with the criterion and accounted for 70 per cent of the criterion variance included high time with teachers present for combination remedial and developmental purposes, high time with teachers for remedial purposes, low average time per function plus working a full day. It appears in examining all sets of significant combinations that a developmental orientation was favored only slightly over a remedial one except when a remedial purpose was linked in combination with a developmental one.

Staff Perception of Helpfulness of Guidance Functions

The staff evaluation of the helpfulness of guidance is an important measure when viewing the overall worthwhileness of the counselor's work. Staff evaluation of the helpfulness of the thirteen selected guidance functions was more positive than negative both years and there was no significant shift the second year (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972).

In the intercorrelational matrix perceived helpfulness of guidance was significantly related to the following variables: achievement of functions, appropriateness of functions, staff openness to the counselor, and perceived helpfulness of the counselor. The direction of the correlational coefficients was toward more positive relationships the second year. A further breakdown in the analysis between staff perceived helpfulness of functions and teacher openness revealed 16 positive correlations both years with eight of the 16 counselor functions selected for study. Teachers' perception of the appropriateness of two selected guidance functions correlated .64 the first year and .73 the second year with staff perception of the helpfulness of guidance functions. This means that the appropriateness of "counselors facilitating parent-teacher conferences" and "working with parents" go hand in hand with staff overall perception of helpfulness of guidance.

In the second year of the two-year study of the demonstration projects the regression analysis of counselor revealed ten significant combinations of predictors of this variable. In this analysis it seemed important that pupils or teachers be present when the function purpose was served. Another pattern was that serving all three purposes, facilitative, remedial and combination, figured in as predictors, of course, in different combinations with the counselor effort variables. The important predictor variables were: low counselor time per function and working a full day. One of the significant combination of predictors which correlated .81 with the criterion and accounted for the largest amount of criterion variance (66 per cent) included high counselor time serving remedial and facilitative purposes with teachers present, high time for remedial purposes with teachers present, low average time per function plus putting in a full working day.

Stuart (1973) as a part of the evaluation of a Roseville Title III project, which focused on coordinating sibling counseling, used the same instrument as the one discussed above assessing again teacher ratings of counselor functions as appropriate, achieved, and/or helpful. It is interesting that teachers in the third year of the project seemed to increase their ratings of appropriateness and achievement of the functions. The highest ratings of helpfulness were reserved for those functions apparently closest to them in the teaching function ("helping teachers to find and use techniques in the classroom which will meet the needs of children for affection, security, self-worth and success" (64%); "working with the teacher in exploring and using approaches for learning more about children in the classroom" (60%)). Somewhat inconsistent were functions (e.g., helping teachers with developmental guidance units) which were rated high in terms of appropriateness (71%) and achievement (73%) yet only 38 percent said they were helpful. An additional 25 percent rated it somewhat helpful. It appears that while teachers perceive certain needs of children (e.g., counseling, referral, testing, orientation, meeting with parents, etc.) and rate the counselor as meeting these needs, they do not personally find them helpful in their work with children in the classroom. Apparently the teachers in the Roseville project did not find indirect approaches helpful in their role.

Staff Openness to Others

Another important dimension assessed in the two-year study of the demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) was a total staff openness to others which is related to one's willingness to consider a wide range of alternatives developed cooperatively with others in the resolution of conflict. The particular assessment here was a willingness of staff to disclose some personal attitudes and feelings to selected individuals—friend, spouse or relative, teacher colleague, counselor, and/or principal. The total score of openness of teachers to others increased significantly the second year.

In the regression analysis, a second year study procedure, two significant combinations of predictors were revealed. The following set of variables correlated .92 with the criterion and accounted for 84 per cent of the criterion variance: high time spent in counseling, putting in a full day, low time on developmental guidance activities, high time spent per function, and high time spent in consulting and in-service activities.

Staff Openness to the Counselor

Openness to others as was pointed out above is a prerequisite if important relationships are to develop out of teacher-counselor consultations (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972). Staff openness to the counselor was positively and significantly related both years to staff perception of appropriateness, achievement, and helpfulness of the guidance functions. Staff openness to the counselor was also positively and significantly related to staff perception of counselor helpfulness which was substantially increased from .26 to .52 the second year.

Staff openness to the counselor as co-worker increased the second year but did not reach significance. In the multiple regression analysis, however, it was possible with four sets of significant predictors to predict staff openness to the counselor. The set which correlated .65 with the criterion and accounted for the most criterion variance (43 per cent) included the following variables: high counselor time serving facilitative purposes with pupils present and completing a large number of functions.

Facilitating Teacher Interpersonal Competence

There were several Minnesota Department of Education sponsored projects concerned with teacher interpersonal relations. One such project was the Haversack and Perrin Hopkins project whereby teachers were provided training to increase selected personal behaviors in the areas of communication skills, goal setting, positive reinforcement, etc. The two groups were led by two elementary school counselors for eight, one and a half hour sessions over an eight week period and both groups made significant gains on all behaviors assessed: communication flow and ownership of problems, goal-setting, receiving skills, sending skills, identification of communication patterns, identification of target behaviors and positive reinforcement.

The Boerger and Sandness Title III project at Osseo stressed the teaching of techniques and skills for fostering communication, group interaction, and affective growth experiences. Of special interest in this project was that of collecting data from pupils to determine if the in-service training made any observable changes in the teachers' behavior. The course consisted of twelve, two-hour after-school sessions based upon experiences integrated from achievement motivation programs, teacher effectiveness training and behavior modification theory. The assessment instrument measured teacher behavior in four areas from a pupil's point of view: *listening* (accepting ideas and feelings of children even when discrepant with adult expectations), *self-disclosure* (teacher reveals her own feelings and ideas to pupils especially when confronted with unacceptable behavior), *problem-solving* (involving pupils with the teacher in resolving conflict as opposed to teacher centered solutions), and *consequating* (emphasizing positive reinforcement to increase desirable pupil behavior as opposed to use of threats and "put downs"). Assessment was also made of self, peers, and teacher in terms of liking for self and others. Data were collected three times throughout the program. Teachers also were asked to complete a questionnaire. In general the majority of teachers felt they increased their sensitivity to pupil feelings, used more positive approaches to maladapted pupil behavior, and increased pupil involvement in problem-solving.

The pupils throughout the period tended to hold self and peer liking patterns constant but decreased slightly their liking for their teacher. Teachers who took the in-service course were perceived by their pupils as significantly better listeners than teachers not taking the course. There was no similar change as observed by pupils with the other components—teacher self-disclosure, problem-solving and consequating.

In the intercorrelational analysis it is interesting that pupil rating of liking the teacher was significantly correlated with teachers' use of self-disclosure, problem-solving and consequating but not listening. It would appear that listening is not enough and this seemed to be confirmed by teacher evaluations suggesting more classroom relevancy.

An important factor to keep in mind in regard to the Osseo study is that the teacher variable which was noticeably changed according to the pupils is the area where most time was spent in the in-service course. Impact upon the other teacher variables as the authors point out might be observable if time were increased in the areas where there was no observed change. This could be done to verify whether or not there is a correlation between teacher outcome and time spent in the desired teacher behavior in the in-service experience. Another important suggestion is that effort be devoted to providing pupil feedback to teachers on a systematic basis to guide the teacher in developing her teaching style.

Another in-service activity involved elementary school teachers from the East Grand Forks area conducted by Dr. Elizabeth Schilson of the University of North Dakota. This in-service activity was organized and presented on the Boerger-Sandness model conducted earlier with Osseo elementary school teachers and reported elsewhere in this publication. The human relationship skills covered included identification of personal strengths, goal setting, communication with pupils, attending behavior, self-disclosure, conflict resolution, behavior modification, and problem-solving. Teachers were encouraged to try out newly practiced behavior in their classrooms and report on their experience at the next session. As Schilson points out these components are consistent with consultation model suggestions presented by others. Using the semantic differential and making pre-post comparisons of teacher attitudes the following in-service concepts were assessed: feedback, listening, natural consequences, learning about each other, attending behavior, children's misbehavior, problem-solving, risk taking, openness, conflict resolution, self-evaluation, goal setting and self-disclosure. Although group mean scores did not change significantly there were individual cases where positive and negative changes did occur at a significant level (almost equal number of each 19+ and 18–).

The same kind of in-service activity was repeated in North Dakota with a similar group of teachers except instead of ten three-hour sessions five six-hour sessions were used and fewer concepts were presented. The Osseo material was used in combination with the Randolph and Howe (1966) material. In a comparison of the results between the two workshops there was a significant difference favoring the North Dakota group on six of the nine concepts: listening, learning about each other, risk taking, problem-solving, openness, and conflict resolution. Self-evaluation, self-disclosure, and children's misbehavior did not change significantly.

There are several possible explanations for the differences: a) the greater concentration of time for each North Dakota session, b) fewer concepts covered, c) combination of two materials used, and/or d) fall of the year over the spring.

Increasing Teacher Utilization of Pupil Data

The St. Cloud three year, Title III ESEA project was concerned about putting more of the data collected on pupils in their elementary schools to use. This concern is supported by others as well, such as a statewide study by Joselyn (1967) also sponsored by Pupil Personnel Services in the Minnesota Department of Education.

The first phase of the project was developing and implementing a data processing system to receive, record, retrieve and report all pupil data in a useful format concerning the 6,500 pupils in 22 schools. Another phase included a series of in-service activities with teachers and later learning kits to assist them in understanding the potential usefulness of such a reporting system as well as increasing teacher understanding of the basic concepts of psychological measurement. The evaluation of this procedure has been positive in that teachers increased significantly in their knowledge of psychological measurement (test terminology and interpretive techniques) and improved in their attitudes toward the subject. Also evaluated was whether or not the teachers who received the in-service actually implemented the new understanding in teacher-parent conferences. It is interesting that about 85 per cent of the parents surveyed reported teachers as showing them the test results, communicating test scores, and using them in educational guidance and planning for their children. The parents also reported (over 85 per cent) that the teachers improved parent understanding of student ability and achievement testing. About 72 per cent of the parents said they planned to do something different with their children as a result of knowing the test results.

Project participation by teachers was grouped into four categories by kind of participation and compared to the actual number of teachers who made use of a specific procedure to utilize pupil test data in teaching (e.g. item analysis, communication with parents, communication with pupils, placement purposes, and evaluation purposes). It is clear that those who were more involved in the project such as attending the in-service meetings, workshop and/or received consultation from project staff reported utilizing the test data in a variety of situations such as item analysis, communication with students and parents about test results, individual and group placement purposes and for evaluation purposes more than those who were only minimally involved (used instruction manual only). The principals' perceptions were equally favorable toward agreeing that teachers' utilization of pupil data was positive.

Counseling, Consulting, or Developmental Guidance

Bender (1970) was interested in resolving the issue over teacher attitude toward the amount of counselor effort which should be devoted to counseling, consulting, or developmental guidance and had intern counselors working in Duluth schools demonstrate the developmental aspects of their role to teachers. Counselors oriented teachers to this role beforehand. The counselor interns over a ten week period consulted with teachers concerning classroom problems and the learning climate and conducted developmental guidance activities in the classroom. Individual counseling was available but not stressed. The consulting role and developmental guidance activities were well received, 81 per cent and 62 per cent respectively. However, teachers still preferred individual and group counseling above developmental guidance functions although differences were slight in some instances.

WORKING WITH PARENTS

Parent Guidance Attitude

The attitude of parents toward the elementary school guidance program is important not only as a source of support but also because they are one of the target groups counselors should be trained to serve (Gum, 1969a). In the state supported demonstration projects two-year study (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972), the instrument used measured parental attitudes toward the guidance program some of whom did not have actual contact with the counselor. The first and second year parental guidance attitudes were positive both years, however, it decreased the second year primarily because of one high negative score (the only one out of fourteen). This one negative score came from the one school where the counselor was involved in discipline.

The intercorrelational analysis of parental guidance attitude and other pupil personal-social variables did not reveal any significant relationships, however, in the regression analysis the guidance attitude of parents was predictable through a number of combinations of counselor effort, purpose, and type of function variables. The largest amount of criterion variance (95 per cent) was accounted for by low time per function, high time on counseling, high time on placement and testing, large number of functions, and high time spent on developmental guidance activities. Six additional combinations of counselor time and effort variables were also significant predictors many accounting for an extremely high amount of criterion variance. It would appear from an examination of these sets that both remedial and developmental counselor role orientations were associated with positive parent guidance attitudes.

Facilitating Parent Understanding and Communication Skills

In an effort to examine further in Minnesota the worthwhileness of counselors working with parents the Hopkins project was conducted as one of two in this area sponsored by the Minnesota Department of Education. The seven session program (each three hours long) consisted of both tryout exercises and didactic meetings. Program stress was upon understanding the communication process within families and tryout experiences incorporating positive communication skills (sending, receiving, family communication systems analysis, problem-solving, etc.). The experimental group of twenty parents was compared on a pre-post basis to a control group of twenty parents on the five scales of the Hereford-Parent Attitude Survey. The experimental group gained significantly over the control on all five scales: confidence, causation, acceptance, understanding, and trust.

An analysis of the second Minnesota Department of Education sponsored family communications study by Campion indicates parents who received counselor assistance in building communication skills and understanding interpersonal behavior also made significant gains over a control group. Two approaches were used: a) an expanded version of the Hopkins program (Benson & Berger, 1971; Mease & Hollinbeck, 1971) for Experimental Group I, and b) a combination method based on content by Koenig (1972) adapted from Tom Gordon (1970) and Adlerian (Dreikurs & Soltz, 1964) material. Group I attended seven 3-hour meetings where didactic mini-sessions, reading, worksheets, and skill tryout methods were used. Skills stressed were listening, sending, problem-solving, systems analysis, and goal setting. Twelve 2-hour meetings were held for Group II. Didactic mini-sessions, reading, parent sharing, mutual problem-solving, and goal setting were approaches used in this group. The results show that both groups made significant gains over the control group on three of the five Hereford (1963) scales (confidence, causation, and understanding). Both groups also made significant gains over the control group on a family scale (includes listening, sending, and systems analysis), however, Group I gains were significantly greater than Group II on this measure.

Parental Evaluation of Guidance

The Winona two-year survey of parents conducted by Dolentz collected data about how parents felt about the guidance program. Parents seemed to be well informed about the counselor and how their child was involved in guidance activities. It is interesting that 80 percent or more of the parents who responded (95 percent return) were: a) aware that the counselor worked with all children, b) would encourage their child to contact the counselor if they had a problem or concern, c) felt there is need for such a program, d) knew who the counselor was, and e) felt they would like to participate in discussion groups on child raising concerns or problems.

The early group of elementary school counselors in Minnesota did not have extensive training in working with parents although it was stressed in the developmental viewpoint (Grams, 1966; Miller, 1966; and Gum, 1969a). The more recent studies were conducted by counselors who received such training. There is increasing evidence, then, that counselors working with parents on a specific need can be helpful (Plott, 1971; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972; Buchmueller et al., 1954; Carroll, 1960; Patterson et al., 1969; Penn, 1972; Shatter, 1956; Samuels, 1958; Stormer, 1967; Tamminen, 1957; and Wirt, 1970). The study by Coopersmith (1967) underscores the importance of the parent-child relationship in facilitating positive self-esteem and competence building. Grams' (1966) review of the literature also stresses the importance of this relationship. There is a growing trend to bring the parents back into the school along with evidence of its worth (Gordon, 1970; Hess & Shipman, 1968; Levenstein, 1971; Smith, 1968; Weikart, 1971; White, 1972).

Model Implementation

In the study of the fourteen elementary school demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, and Bender, 1972) effort was directed toward a study of the nature of the counselor's role by collecting information on a 20 and 15 per cent sample of counselors working days over a two-year period respectively. Over 8,000 functions were analyzed according to a) *purpose* of the function performed *(developmental, remedial,* or *combination remedial and developmental)*; b) *type* of function performed (counseling, developmental classroom guidance activities, consultation and in-service, and placement and testing) and c) counselor *effort* variables (average time per function, number of functions performed, and total time spent working).

In the comparison of counselor time spent across the ten categories of functions analyzed the first year, four of them were not different, three favored a developmental approach, two favored a combination of both remedial and developmental and one a remedial orientation. The second year comparison indicated four comparisons favored a developmental model, three no difference, two a combination and one remedial. An analysis of changes the second year over the first year showed that four developmental *purposes* and *types* of functions increased significantly, in amount of time spent by counselors, two remedial categories increased significantly, and one combination increased significantly.

An obvious conclusion regarding the first year is that the developmental orientation was favored over a remedial approach with four of the ten comparisons indicating no difference. The second year the distribution of time shifted to more clearly form a developmental model as shown by the four significant increases in time spent in these categories over the first year whereas remedial showed two and a combination only one significant increase in time. It was concluded that a developmentally oriented model of elementary school guidance was implemented by the typical counselor in the study although a smaller portion of the counselor's time was devoted to remedial functions.

Differential Model Effectiveness

In addition to examining the nature of role model implemented by project counselors in the two-year study it is also important to note the relationships between how counselors spent their time and what happened to the sixteen guidance outcome variables (Miller, Gum, and Bender, 1972).

Examining pupil outcome variables through regression analysis sixteen combinations were predictive of the following five pupil variables: perception of counselor helpfulness, social status, academic self-concept, real self-concept, and ideal self-concept. In five of these sixteen combinations high number of functions performed appeared as one of the common predictor variables; in other words, the counselor performed a lot of tasks. Another common pattern was that remedial oriented variables appeared frequently and developmental oriented variables were often noticeably absent. The students with low peer status increased significantly via a remedial function; group counseling.

An examination of staff and parent guidance attitude variables showed that low time (19-24 minutes) spent on the average function appeared in fourteen of the nineteen significant combinations of predictors in the regression analysis. Performing a large number of tasks occurred eight times and working a full day showed up in six combinations. Both remedial and developmental types of activities also appeared as important predictor variables. Staff and parent outcomes predicted by counselor time-function-effort variables were staff perception of guidance functions (appropriateness, achievement, and helpfulness), teacher perception of counselor helpfulness, staff openness to the counselor, and parent guidance attitude.

The three pupil-teacher outcome variables which improved significantly by the second year were school anxiety, locus of control and teacher openness. It will be recalled that the second year the model orientation was more developmental than remedial.

The only variables which did not improve significantly or were not predictable by how counselors spent their time and effort were pupil achievement (as rated by teachers) and discrepancy between real and ideal self-concept. Academic achievement, however, was significantly related to other important pupil variables (social status, locus of control, academic self-concept, real and ideal self-concepts, and school anxiety). It might be that teachers tend to grade pupils on a normal distribution and expectancy levels rise for the pupil as he gets older in order to remain in the same position. It would appear that counselor concern over academic achievement might be handled through indirect approaches by focusing upon school anxiety, self-concept, locus of control, social status, plus teacher and parent variables (Crider, 1964; Howell, 1972; Kaczkowski, 1971; Mann, 1967; Weynick & Holdin, 1971; Penn, 1972; Shatter, 1956; Strickler, 1964; and Wirt, 1970).

An obvious conclusion in the two-year study was that differential counselor impact was a function of how he spent his time and energy: a) *developmental model* which became more fully implemented the second year was associated with three pupil-teacher outcomes-increase in pupil locus of control, reduction in school anxiety, and increase in staff openness to others; b) desirable changes in five pupil outcomes were associated more with a *remedially oriented* counselor role—pupil perceptions of counselor helpfulness, real and ideal self-concepts, social status, and academic self-concept, and c) seven staff-parent variables were influenced by counselors who used *both developmental and remedial* guidance methods and served *combination purposes*—parent guidance attitude, teacher perceptions of counselor helpfulness, staff openness to others, staff openness to the counselor, and staff perception of guidance functions (appropriateness, achievement, and helpfulness).

In reviewing the additional studies described in this paper in combination with the earlier research it appears from the summary in Table 1, that the evidence supporting the *developmental* approach is growing, especially with all three target groups—pupils, teachers and parents. Developmental approaches in these more recent studies show effectiveness with the following pupil variables: self-concepts, peer status, school attitude and verbal behavior of pupils. Interpersonal communication and dynamics of behavior also were changed significantly with teachers and parents using a developmental approach. A remedial approach was also helpful with self-concept and academic improvement of pupils. A combination approach was rated helpful by teachers. Compared to the results of the demonstration projects it is obvious that the developmental approach can be effective with certain pupil variables when dealing with all children; the counselor need not limit himself to a remedial approach such as seeing only a few in counseling, placement or testing. The impact upon parent-staff variables is about the same as the results of the demonstration projects and that is both remedial and developmental approaches appear effective.

A recent study of Minnesota elementary school counselors (Dick, 1972) indicates they favor the consultation function of the counselor's role and recommend that time spent on consultation be equal to or greater than that spent performing other guidance functions. Joint pupil-teacher counselor consultations were also favored.

James (1972) conducted an evaluation of an elementary school guidance and counseling program at Stillwater based upon one counselor serving eight buildings on an itinerant basis. While the elementary school staff were in general positive about the itinerant services provided on a part-time basis, the majority wanted the services expanded to at least half-time per building and over a third wanted a full time person per building.

The bimodal model emphasis of Byrne (1967) and Tamminen and Miller (1968) stressing time both for developmental needs and remedial needs appears well supported in the studies by Bender (1970), Dick (1972), and Miller et al. (1972). The results indicate that decisions must be made by the school as to what outcome variables are most important for it is doubtful that one counselor alone without team effort (Muro and Merritt, 1968) could, with the evidence of these studies, make an impact on all important variables. Strategies outlined by Briskin appear useful in implementing desirable counselor behaviors.

SUMMARY—SERVING PUPIL NEEDS

Pupil Perception of Counselor Helpfulness

In the two-year study of the fourteen demonstration projects (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972) pupil perception of counselor helpfulness decreased the second year when the role model was more developmental in orientation, however, from the regression analysis in the study of counselor time used across various functions it was possible in 18 out of 21 analyses to predict this pupil outcome variable mostly in remedial type activities. The assessment instrument, however, is somewhat clinical in nature and perhaps this kind of relationship of a remedial role to perception of counselor helpfulness is expected. This outcome is similar to other remedial oriented kinds of relationships (Scheuer, 1971; Tamminen & Miller, 1968). Pupils in the Winona study by Dolentz felt the counselor was approachable and they expressed an interest in participation in small discussion groups, however, a sizeable group felt he was too busy for them to get what they needed. Even though over 90 per cent had already seen the counselor in individual counseling or classroom guidance, there was still an expressed need for more, particularly small discussion groups.

Self-Concept

How one perceives himself and the relationship this perception has with other personal variables has been studied extensively. In the Minnesota studies to date, many of the studies regarding the positive relationship of self-concept measures to achievement were confirmed. Academic self-concept appears to be the self-concept measure with the highest relationship to school achievement. With the exception of discrepancy scores between real and idea/self-concept, real, ideal, and academic self-concept variables were predictable by counselors who served more in a remedial role or serving both remedial and developmental purposes (Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972).

It is rather evident that counselors or teachers with appropriate material and trained to work developmentally in the classroom with all children can make significant impact upon the self-concept at preschool, first grade and second grade levels (Pardew & Schilson; Campion, 1973; Darrigrand & Gum; and Miller & Das, 1973). This supports the findings of other research (Eldridge, Barcikowski, & Witmer, 1973).

Peer Status

The importance of social development has been pointed out, especially its relationship to school achievement, functioning in the classroom and academic ability part of which was confirmed by the two-year demonstration projects. Counselors also demonstrated effectiveness through counseling of pupils having the lowest peer status (Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972). Counselors trained to use materials specifically developed to improve understanding of others have been found to be effective with second, and fourth grade children (Darrigrand & Gum, and Hammerschmidt and Smaby).

Academic Achievement

The school is primarily concerned with cognitive development and it is interesting that eight of the personal-social variables were significantly correlated with achievement. Counselors were found to be effective in improving many of these outcome variables, especially when considering how his time is spent (Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972). Howell (1972) in using developmental guidance materials with learning disabled learners found a .91 correlation between achievement test gain scores and self-concept gain scores.

School Anxiety

Counselors are interested in the reduction of inhibiting school anxiety in order that pupils may devote their energies to greater social-emotional-intellectual development. Normal anxiety can be useful in the process; the school anxiety considered here is that which inhibits or handicaps the learner. In the fourteen demonstration projects counselors showed up as being effective in reducing anxiety of school children. The importance of anxiety is supported by other evidence in the study; it was significantly related in a negative way to pupil and achievement. In other words, high achievement and low anxiety go together and vice versa. This is also true with locus of control and anxiety (Miller, Gum, Bender, 1972).

Locus of Control

The importance of exercising some influence over one's life can be seen by noting that this variable was significantly related to self-concept, school achievement and negatively to school anxiety. It is encouraging to find in the fourteen demonstration projects that locus of control of the upper elementary school-age children increased significantly the second year of the study (Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972).

SUMMARY—WORKING WITH TEACHERS

Fostering Teacher Interpersonal Competence

The importance of the teacher in the learning process cannot be stressed enough and while it is helpful for the counselors and others to consult with the teacher about group process, classroom climate, etc., it is also worthwhile to provide opportunities for staff development in the areas of listening skills, sending skills, goal setting, problem-solving, risk taking, etc. It is interesting in the Osseo project that Boerger and Sanders found pupil liking of the teacher significantly related to teacher's use of self-disclosure, problem-solving (includes pupil involvement) and use of positive reinforcement. The in-service project at Osseo was helpful in making significant improvement in teacher listening skills as reported by pupils. The Hopkins project was effective in making significant changes in teacher receiving skills, sending skills, the identification of target behaviors, ownership of problems, communication patterns, and goal setting. The two in-service methods with teachers used by Schilson show that length and time of sessions, content, and number of concepts presented are possible important considerations; one group made significant gains on attitude measures of six of the nine concepts examined—listening, risk taking, problem solving, openness, learning about each other, and conflict resolution.

The fourteen demonstration project counselors showed a significant improvement in staff openness to others; it is predictable by counselors serving a bimodal orientation—both remedial and developmental. Staff openness to the counselor increased though not significantly but high scores were predictable through the counselor serving a bimodal model. Openness to the counselor was significantly correlated to staff perception of counselor helpfulness.

Teacher Utilization of Pupil Data

Putting pupil test data and other important information to use has long been of interest to educators, especially administrators who stress the use of test information in planning for pupils. The St. Cloud project demonstrates that an organized in-service program with teachers through the use of a consultant can be effective in making significant improvement in attitudes and knowledge about basic concepts of psychological-educational measurement. Of considerable importance is that an extremely high percent of the parents studied (85 per cent) reported teacher use of test scores in teacher-parent conferences. It is not surprising that the greater the teacher involvement in in-service and consultation activities the greater the teacher utilization of test and pupil data.

Teachers Evaluation of Guidance

How teachers view the counselors and the guidance program is important if they are going to be effective. There were enough intercorrelations in the two-year study of the demonstration projects to bear this out. Teachers' perception of the appropriateness of selected guidance functions were viewed more appropriate than inappropriate, more achieved than not achieved, and more helpful than not helpful. Appropriateness was significantly related to staff perception of counselor helpfulness and staff openness. Both achievement and helpfulness of guidance functions were significantly related to staff openness to the counselor and staff perception of counselor helpfulness. All three of these teachers' ratings of guidance functions—appropriateness, achievement and helpfulness—were predictable by how counselors spent their time across various functions, guidance purposes, and effort variables. The most common pattern was all three—remedial, developmental and combination of remedial and developmental—role function orientations predict all three of these teachers' ratings. Teacher perception of counselor helpfulness was predictable by combination of remedial and developmental guidance purposes again to stress a bimodal model orientation.

Bender, in assessing Duluth teachers' evaluations of counseling consultation or developmental classroom guidance, found that counseling and developmental guidance were well received by a high per cent of the teachers but counseling was also rated high.

SUMMARY—WORKING WITH PARENTS

Parent Attitude Toward Guidance

Counselors to be successful need the support of parents and have a responsibility to work with parents as significant others who influence the development of children. The importance of this influence has been shown by others, especially Coopersmith (1967). In the two-year study of the fourteen demonstration projects both years parents revealed positive attitudes toward the guidance program. The second year the attitude dropped primarily due to the influence of the only one negative attitude score which incidentally was the only counselor in the study involved in discipline. The higher parent guidance attitude scores were predictable with many combinations of counselor function variables; one combination accounted for 95 per cent of the criterion variance. Higher scores in this variable were predictable from a variety of role function orientation—remedial, developmental, and a combination of remedial and developmental (Miller, Gum, & Bender, 1972).

The Winona parent evaluations of guidance by Dolentz clearly indicate that parents understand the counselor is in the school to serve all children. Parents would encourage their children to go to the counselor if there was a personal need and registered a personal interest in participating in parent discussion groups. They expressed a need for the elementary school guidance program.

Facilitating Parent Communication Skills

The Hopkins parent groups led by elementary school counselors proved effective in bringing about significant changes in parent attitudes on all five of the attitude variables assessed: confidence, trust, acceptance, understanding, and causation. Campion's comparison of two methods of working with parents to increase both understanding of family interpersonal communication plus skill development resulted in both approaches being significantly better over controls on skill development and understanding of key concepts of behavior such as confidence, causation, and understanding. Taken together there is considerable evidence that parents gain from and support the guidance programs which have been established not only for their children but themselves as well. The Hopkins project, Campion's and others (Plott, 1971; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972; Buchmueller et al., 1954; Carroll, 1960; Patterson et al., 1969; Penn, 1972; Shotter, 1956; Samuels, 1958; Stormer, 1967; Tamminen, 1957; and Wirt, 1970) demonstrate that counselors can be effective in working directly with parents.

A Concluding Note

In the study of the fourteen demonstration projects, the evidence from the first and second year comparisons showed that counselors appeared to make significant difference on four guidance outcome variables—reduction in pupil school anxiety, increase in peer status of low status children, increase in pupil perceived self influence, and increase in staff openness to others. The higher scores on a dozen additional guidance outcome variables were predictable (academic self-concept, real-ideal self concept, social status, both pupil and teachers perception of counselor helpfulness, staff openness to counselor, staff openness to others, parent guidance attitude and staff perception of guidance, functions-appropriateness-achievement-helpfulness) through a knowledge of how counselors spent their time on various role functions which suggests that once the value judgment is made as to what outcomes are most important, the counselor structuring his time accordingly could hope to make a difference on the valued outcomes. In a way this is what happened with the additional more controlled studies sponsored by the Pupil Personnel Services Section, reported in this publication—guidance outcome variables were selected as judged to be important, i.e., self-concept, peer status, teacher interpersonal competence, parent communication systems, etc., and materials and methods (including counselor functions, use of time, etc.) tested out as to possible effectiveness. The results of the additional research reported herein provide strong evidence that counselors appropriately trained and provided well-developed methods can make significant impact upon selected human qualities not only important in and of themselves but significantly related to other also important developmental characteristics. The results of a number of Minnesota elementary school guidance studies are summarized in Table 1. It is heartening that two Minnesota school districts (Cloquet, 1971; Duluth, 1971) have gone on record as ranking self-understanding and other affective dimensions important in their own right. The Minnesota Department of Education (1972) has included affective measurement as an important factor along with cognitive achievement in the statewide assessment program.

Table 1
Summary of Minnesota Elementary School Guidance Research

Variable	Significant Improvement	Predictable Through Counselor Role	Significantly Correlated with Other Selected Variables
Pupil Variables			
1. Self-concept	Pardew & Schilson Campion (1973) Darrigrand & Gum Miller & Das (1973)	——	Achievement, Howell (1972)
2. Academic Self-concept		Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Achievement, ideal, real, and discrepancy. Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
3. Real Self-concept	——	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Achievement, ideal, discrepancy (—), academic self-concept, anxiety, Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
4. Ideal Self-concept	——	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Achievement, academic self-concept, real self-concept, Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
5. Discrepancy between Real-Ideal Self-concept	——	——	Achievement, academic self-concept, real (—) & ideal self-concept, Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
6. Peer Status	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972), Low status group.	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Achievement, Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
	Darrigrand & Gum	——	——
	Hammerschmidt & Smaby	——	——
7. Academic Achievement	——	——	Self-concept, Howell (1972) peer status, locus of control
	——	——	academic self-concept, real-ideal, discrepancy (—), anxiety (—). Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
	——	——	Preschool clinic screening battery-verbal, visual/motor, & draw-a-picture (Larson, 1973).
8. School Anxiety	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	——	Achievement, locus of control, real self-concept (—), Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
9. Locus of Control	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	——	Achievement, real, ideal self-concepts and anxiety (—). Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)

Table 1—Continued
Summary of Minnesota Elementary School Guidance Research—Continued

Variable	Significant Improvement	Predictable Through Counselor Role	Significantly Correlated with Other Selected Variables
10. School Attitude	Darrigrand & Gum	———	———
11. Verbal Behavior	Hammerschmidt & Smaby	———	———
12. Pupil Perception of Counselor Helpfulness	———	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	———
Teacher Variables			
13. Teacher Perception of Counselor Helpfulness	Dolentz* Bender*	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Pupil test anxiety, parent guidance attitude (—). Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
14. Teacher Perception of Guidance Functions	James (1972) Stuart (1973)*	———	Staff perception of counselor helpfulness, staff openness to counselor. Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
A. Appropriateness	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)**	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Pupil real self-concept, parents guidance attitude (—), staff perception of guidance helpfulness, staff openness to counselor, staff perception of counselor helpfulness. Also, see table 93 Miller, Gum & Bender (1972) for 11 correlations with selected guidance functions.
B. Achievement	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)**	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Staff perception of counselor helpfulness, staff openness to counselor, staff perception of guidance appropriateness. See also table 92, Miller et al, 16 other correlations with eight guidance functions.
C. Helpfulness	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)**	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Parents guidance attitude (—), teacher openness to others, pupil anxiety, staff openness to counselor, appropriateness and helpfulness of guidance functions. See also table 92 Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972, for 16 correlations with eight guidance functions.

Table 1—Continued

Summary of Minnesota Elementary School Guidance Research—Continued

Variable	Significant Improvement	Predictable Through Counselor Role	Significantly Correlated with Other Selected Variables
15. **Staff Openness to Others**	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Pupil academic self-concept (—), Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
16. Staff Openness to Counselor	———	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	See table 92 Miller, Gum & Bender (1972) 43 first and second year correlations to eight selected guidance functions.
17. Teacher Interpersonal Competence	Haversack & Perrin	———	———
	Schilson	———	———
	Boerger & Sandness	———	Liking for teacher relate to teacher use of self-disclosure, problem solving and reinforcement. Boerger & Sandness
18. Teacher Use of Pupil Data	Malinen & McCain	———	Utilization related to teacher in-service involvement Malinen & McCain
Working with Parents			
19. Parent Guidance Attitude	Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972**	Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)	Teacher perception of guidance helpfulness (—), two selected guidance functions (—), teachers perception of counselor helpfulness (—). Miller, Gum & Bender (1972)
20. Parent Evaluation of Guidance	Dolentz*	———	———
21. Parent Communications Training	Berger & Haversack	———	———
	Campion	———	———
Working with Counselors			
22. Role Implementation	Briskin*	———	———

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*Measurement positive but not tested statistically.

**Rated within positive range on scale both years.

Implications and Recommendations

1. Efforts directed to make impact upon important personal variables of children (self-concept, acceptance of others, school attitude, verbal behavior, etc.) must be systematically applied by counselors and teachers.

2. Teachers and counselors who demonstrate change in children's characteristics such as self-esteem are usually committed to the importance of psychological education and also have had training in classroom guidance either through college courses or workshops.

3. As a result of the differential relationship between counselor role (time spent on various functions, types of functions, counselor effort variables, etc.) and impact upon important guidance outcome variables, it is necessary that school staff collectively decide on what variables have the highest priority. It is not likely that one counselor within the usual constraints of time and competence can demonstrate significant change across all possibilities.

4. Counselors and psychologists with some communications training in working with parents and teachers appear to significantly improve the understanding of the dynamics of human behavior and interpersonal skills when presented in an organized and systematic way.

5. Teacher understanding and utilization of pupil data in teaching and parent-teacher conferences, a longstanding concern of administrators, can be enhanced through an ongoing in-service/consultation process whereby step-by-step assistance is offered in relation to the regular testing and data gathering-reporting procedures of the school.

6. The effectiveness of counselor-consultants and the guidance program is related in part to staff openness. Counselors should be prepared to facilitate staff openness and the school administrators should support opportunities to promote a positive approach to staff openness.

7. Performing functions with teachers present is as important to some guidance outcomes as is performing them with the pupils present. Personal contact and demonstrated competance by counselors are important guidance input variables related to many guidance outcomes (see Table 96, pp. 168-173, Miller, Gum & Bender, 1972).

8. Academic achievement is linked to other important personal-social variables of self-concept, status with peers, feelings of control, school anxiety, etc., and while this relationship is important, attention to these affective variables can be justified in their own right.

9. Teacher training and in-service activities should place greater stress on developing sensitivity and awareness of the developmental needs of all children, and the role of parents, teachers, counselors and other functionaries (psychologists, social workers, nurses, etc.) in meeting these needs.

10. There is considerable evidence to support the notion that counselors should function within a bimodal framework, i.e., spend time in both *remedial* type of tasks (counseling, placement & testing) and *developmental* or *preventative* activities (developmental classroom guidance, consultation with teachers and parents, and in-service programs).

11. A counselor role inventory combined with counselor educator consultations is a promising strategy for assisting counselors in implementing the desired role.

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